The CLEARING HOUSE

A JOURNAL FOR MODERN JUNIOR AND SENIOR HIGH SCHOOLS

Vol. 31 APRIL 1957 No. 8

In this issue:

Teaching for Critical Thinking
by CARLOS de ZAFRA, JR.

Further Reflections on Teacher Bias
by THOMAS E. ALLEN

Evaluating Progress toward Integration
by ELDRIDGE J. WATERS

Decency or Delinquency?
by DONALD I. WOOD

Can We Counsel Students into Engineering? . . . Mobile Teacher Retirement Systems . . . An Experiment in Listening . . . A Poem for Teaching . . . Legal Implications in School Field Trips

PUBLISHED BY FAIRLEIGH DICKINSON UNIVERSITY PRESS

The Clearing House

EDITOR

ELLSWORTH TOMPKINS, Assistant Secretary, National Association of Secondary-School Principals, Washington, D.C.

MANAGING EDITOR

JOSEPH GREEN, Fairleigh Dickinson University, Teaneck, New Jersey

POPULAR ARTS EDITOR

PATRICK D. HAZARD, State Teachers College, Trenton, New Jersey

BOOK REVIEW EDITOR

FORREST IRWIN, Professor, Fairleigh Dickinson University, Rutherford, New Jersey

AUDIO-VISUAL EDITOR

EVERETT B. LAKE, Ossining Junior-Senior High School, Ossining, New York

ASSOCIATE EDITORS

PETER SAMMARTINO, President, Fairleigh Dickinson University, Rutherford, New Jersey

FORREST E. LONG, Professor, School of Education, New York University, New York, New York

BENJAMIN FINE, Education Editor, New York *Times*, New York, New York

EDITORIAL BOARD

Term Ends December 31, 1957

CHARLES E. BISH, Principal, McKinley High School, Washington, D.C.

FLOYD HONEY, Principal, Monterey Senior High School, Lubbock, Texas

HARL R. DOUGLASS, Director, College of Education, University of Colorado, Boulder, Colorado

ERNEST G. LAKE, Superintendent of Schools, Racine, Wisconsin

M. E. HERRIOTT, Principal, Airport Junior High School, Los Angeles, California

A. H. LAUGHNER, Principal, Great Neck Junior High School, Great Neck, New York

WILLIAM F. STEINER, Principal, Cliffside Park Senior High School, Cliffside Park, New Jersey

Term Ends December 31, 1958

ROBERT G. ANDREE, Superintendent, Rich Township High School, Park Forest, Illinois

ARNO JEWETT, Specialist for Language Arts, United States Office of Education, Washington, D.C.

LELAND N. DRAKE, Principal, Mohawk Junior High School, Columbus, Ohio

LESTER W. NELSON, Consultant, Fund for the Advancement of Education, New York, New York

WALTER H. GAUMNITZ, Educational Consultant, Orlando, Florida

FREDERIC T. SHIPP, Visiting Professor of Education, University of the Philippines, Quezon City, P.I.

GLENN F. VARNER, Assistant Superintendent, St. Paul Public Schools, St. Paul, Minnesota

Term Ends December 31, 1959

CLAYTON E. BUELL, Assistant to the Associate Superintendent, Public Schools, Philadelphia, Pennsylvania

GALEN JONES, Director, Study on Economic Education, Council for Advancement of Secondary Education, Inc., Washington, D.C.

TED GORDON, Assistant Dean, Los Angeles City College, Los Angeles, California

WILBUR H. MARSHALL, General Consultant in Instruction, Department of Education, Tallahassee, Florida

WILLIAM T. GRUHN, Professor of Education, College of Education, University of Connecticut, Storrs, Connecticut

CLIFF ROBINSON, Director of Secondary Education, State Department of Education, Salem, Oregon

CLARENCE H. SPAIN, Principal, Binford Junior High School, Richmond, Virginia

Editorial and General Office: Fairleigh Dickinson University, Teaneck, New Jersey

Subscription Office: 205 Lexington Avenue, Sweet Springs, Missouri

THE CLEARING HOUSE is published at 450 Ahnaip Street, Menasha, Wisconsin. Editorial office: Fairleigh Dickinson University, Teaneck, New Jersey. Published monthly from September through May of each year.

Subscription price: $4.50 a year. Two years for $7.60 if cash accompanies order. Single copies 60 cents. Subscription for less than a year will be charged at the single-copy rate. For subscriptions in groups of ten or more, write for special rates. Foreign countries and Canada, $5.10 a year, payment in American funds. Printed in U.S.A.

Entered as second-class matter at the post office at Menasha, Wisconsin, under the act of March 8, 1879. Accepted for mailing at the special rate of postage authorized October 4, 1955.

Copyright, 1957, Fairleigh Dickinson University

The Clearing House

A journal for modern junior and senior high schools

VOL. 31 APRIL 1957 No. 8

Contents

Can We Counsel Students into Engineering? ..... *E. J. Albrecht* 451
Teaching for Critical Thinking ..... *Carlos de Zafra, Jr.* 453
Further Reflections on Teacher Bias ..... *Thomas E. Allen* 457
Success in Classroom Control ..... *Robert D. Crossan* 460
Ninth Graders Tackle Juvenile Delinquency ..... *Charles Lenz Roberts* 463
Girls in Junior High Analyze Their Problems ..... *Elliott E. Kigner* 466
Mobile Teacher-Retirement Systems ..... *B. Everard Blanchard* 470
Evaluating Progress toward Integration ..... *Eldridge J. Waters* 473
A School Parades to the Polls ..... *Sigmund A. Friedman* 476
Legal Implications in School Field Trips ..... *Leonard A. Szudy* 479
An Experiment in Listening ..... *Vivian Zinkin* 482
If I Were a Principal—My First Speech to the Faculty ..... *David B. Ward* 487
The Impact of Social and Economic Changes on Secondary Education ..... *Donald A. Leton* and *Nolan C. Kearney* 489
Decency or Delinquency? ..... *Donald I. Wood* 493
A Poem for Teaching ..... *Milton R. Stern* 497

Departments

Tricks of the Trade 472
Findings 492
Book Reviews 500
TV & the Newer Media 505
Audio-Visual News 511

CH *articles are listed in the* Education Index.
CH *volumes are available on microfilm.*

NOTICE TO WRITERS

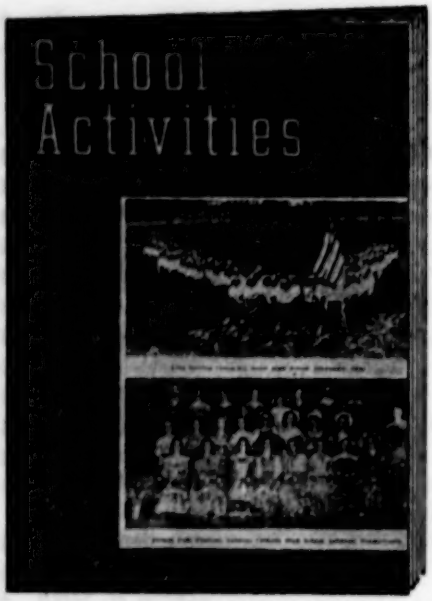
We invite readers to write articles that report good practices, interesting experiments, research findings, or new slants on persistent problems in education. We prefer articles that combine factual reporting, interesting context, and incisive style. Topics should relate to programs, services, and personnel in junior and senior high school.

Manuscripts should not exceed 2,500 words, although we can use shorter pieces of 100 to 600 words. Write what you have to say in as few words as possible. Eliminate trite phrases and unnecessary words that serve only to fill up space.

Typing should be double spaced. Keep the carbon copy and send us the original. To tailor articles to available space, we may have to make slight changes in the manuscript. Do not expect the return of your manuscript until members of the Editorial Board have had enough time to give it full consideration.

Send manuscripts to the Editor, The Clearing House, Fairleigh Dickinson University, Teaneck, N.J.

Leading Educators Agree . . .



School Activities Magazine

is a valuable asset to every school

"Every issue is full of good ideas." —Gerald M. Van Pool, National Education Association

"School Activities Magazine should be in the library of every high school in the country."—E. A. Thomas, Commissioner, Kansas State High School Activities Association

And Here's Why . . .

In monthly issues during the school year, SCHOOL ACTIVITIES Magazine tells you the all-important "how-to-do-it" of successful school programs. Outstanding contributors give suggestions for planning activities, and articles from schools over the entire United States tell you how THEIR school handled a particular event. In your school library, it will be invaluable to student leaders and faculty sponsors.

The contents cover activity programs, school assemblies, class plays, clubs, athletics, student publications, student government, debate, financing activities, homerooms, pep clubs, music, commencement, parties and banquets, and other miscellaneous extra-curricular activities.

SUBSCRIBE NOW!

SCHOOL ACTIVITIES Publishing Company
1041 New Hampshire, Lawrence, Kansas

Please enter my subscription to SCHOOL ACTIVITIES Magazine

One Year at $4.00 ☐ **Two Years at $7.00** ☐

Name .....

Street .....

City ..... State .....

THE CLEARING HOUSE
A journal for modern junior and senior high schools
VOL. 31 APRIL 1957 NO. 8

Can We Counsel Students into ENGINEERING?

By
E. J. ALBRECHT

WHENEVER SOMEONE FROM AN ENGINEERING SCHOOL has occasion to refer to the current need for engineers—at least once or twice daily—he invariably makes the comment that our superior students should be encouraged to become engineers. "They need to be counseled," he pontificates.

Where is this need for counseling so apparent? Why, in the high school of course. Daily one is confronted in the public press with the uncomplimentary implication that there is no counseling in the high school; that only by the grace of God do engineering schools get enough students to warrant keeping their doors open.

To me, a high-school counselor, this has developed into an exasperating situation. In the first place, there is plenty of good counseling in the high school. In the second place, the engineering schools themselves are helping to create their own shortage of engineers.

What type of student does the engineering school want? He should be a top student in mathematics and science, to begin with. How does he acquire this ability? By means of his native intelligence, carefully cultivated by devoted teachers skilled in the art of teaching, whose object is to promote the student's welfare academically, to bring forth his best efforts through positive motivation combined with kindly criticism.

It is also essential that the pupil be intensely interested in the study of mathematics and science, or engineering will be a sad occupational choice. He must not only be a top student, but he must have the devotion and self-dedication necessary to pull him through the college curriculum prescribed for engineers and perpetrated upon the student, for the most part, in a cold-blooded, unsympathetic manner by the instructors. It is my firm conviction

EDITOR'S NOTE

One sees in the "Men Wanted" columns of the daily newspaper considerable evidence that there aren't enough qualified engineers available. Week by week the size and number of classified advertisements get larger. Is there an actual shortage of engineers? Most people think that there is, although occasionally you hear the comment that the shortage is relative rather than absolute; that is, with the electronic and allied industries expanding so rapidly there was no way to supply their demand for scientific personnel. There seems to be strong feeling about this condition or shortage. The author of this article makes some pointed comments about a slightly different viewpoint.

Mr. Albrecht is vice-principal of the Custer County High School in Miles City, Montana.

that the same type of instructive skill used in high school, if applied in the college classroom to replace the take-it-or-leave-it attitude, would enable more engineering students to become engineers instead of physical education majors. We admittedly need P.E. majors, but we don't like the idea of frustrated engineers constituting the raw material.

It is not my purpose to tell engineers what to put into their curriculums, but I have a deep-founded suspicion that mathematics and science courses are occasionally made tougher than necessary, merely for the sake of being tough. It puts one into an exclusive, select category when over one-half of the students fail the course.

"My, what a tough teacher! His students really have to work."

Granted, but I wonder if the teacher really teaches. The old Romans had a system known as "decimating" a legion which failed to live up to their standards in battle. They simply killed every tenth man, regardless of who he was or what he had done. It had a salutary effect on the survivors, but didn't do the tenth man much good. Even the Romans knew better than to kill off every fourth or third man and then expect the rest to fight. I don't think anyone wants to make a "soft touch" out of engineering, but a qualified freshman ought to have better than a 50-50 chance for survival.

Yes, we advise some students to become engineers. Heretical as it may seem, we also advise some not to become engineers. And some students try engineering in spite of our advice. We know that four years of high-school mathematics are desirable prerequisites, yet some of our students do not make their occupational choices until spring of their senior years, and four years of math. may then be impossible. Such a delayed choice may also be rank heresy, but that's the way some kids operate. After all, how many of us entered high school with a slide rule in our hip pockets plus an all-consuming desire to build a better atomic bomb?

Let's face it. Until we are willing to conscript labor, some of our brighter boys and girls will become lawyers, doctors, bootleggers, nurses, mechanics, gamblers, merchants, farmers, or whatever you like. And even after the scientists and the mathematicians devise a method whereby the irresistible force does move the immovable object, or vice versa, they will have to call upon the social scientists to decide what to do with it.

❖

What Is the Principalship? Actually, the demands of the position of high-school principal are what various people believe the position requires. Their concept of what the holder of the position should do and does, in actual practice, determines the boundaries, requirements, limitations, emphases, responsibilities, and power of the position. The people who are probably most critically involved in this determination of the position would normally include such professional acquaintances as the superintendent, classroom teachers, and other principals; the patrons of the school, including students and parents; and certain interested and concerned non-parent citizens of the community who may have no direct tie with the school. Although there may be legal rules and regulations concerning the duties of the principal, what he (or she) does will be determined actually by what people think he should and must do. It is reasonable to assume that the prime influence in this determination of the nature of the position will be the conceptualization on the part of the principal himself, but he will certainly be appreciably influenced by what he believes is expected of him by those within the orbit of his manifold professional activities. The people about him in the school, in the community, and in the profession itself will all affect and shape the nature of the position through their understanding of the role of the principal.—DAVID B. AUSTIN and JAMES S. COLLINS in the *Bulletin* of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals.

Teaching for Critical Thinking

By CARLOS DE ZAFRA, JR.

FOR THE FIRST TIME in his long history, mankind has in his power the ability to fill his cornucopia or to destroy himself. Because the rate of change has greatly accelerated and because the applications that are made of mankind's discoveries and inventions are more important than are the discoveries and inventions themselves, mankind now needs to do some critical thinking of an unprecedented quality. The future of the human race depends upon the quality of critical thinking that is done in the world today.

Dependent upon the quality of critical thinking that is done in America is the future of the United States as a leader among nations. "Muddling through" is no longer good enough for any country in our contemporary world. And dependent upon the quality of his own critical thinking is the full realization of each individual's own potentialities. The individual needs an antidote to today's pressures of mass communication and to the tendencies toward uncritical conformity to the mores of the crowd.

Thus it has become imperative that our secondary schools consciously step up their cultivation of critical thinking.

Critical thinking is done in the presence of important issues not yet settled, of vital problems not yet solved. Critical thinking means the control of emotions, the curbing of impulsiveness; it is the recognition of cause and effect; it is creative; it is problem solving; it is the questioning of the traditional and its modification for improvement. Critical thinking can involve the analysis of a problem into its component parts, and it can involve the arrival at generalizations and theories from an understanding of the interrelationships among minutiae. Critical thinking is the making of choices.

In summary, critical thinking is the intelligent meeting of situations in the light of past experience, present and often changing facts and conditions, and probable developments.

Any definition of critical thinking should also recognize the fact that it can take place at different levels.

For example, the baboon that manages to obtain some bananas from over his cage by the effective use of a chair and a broomstick, and the diplomat who brings about a peaceable, workable, and stable solution of the Suez Canal crisis both use critical thinking, although the complexity and value of the second accomplishment is patently greater than the first.

Since things too seldom "just happen" to come out right in our modern world, critical thinking is usually behind any successful project, whether of a personal or community nature. While critical thinking does not always lead to unanimous judgments

---

EDITOR'S NOTE

It is not widely understood by the public that teaching pupils to think rather than remember, to weigh evidence rather than regurgitate what the teacher said, is one of the strengths of instruction in a great many American secondary schools. Upon analysis, it may appear that vocal critics of education who demand a return to the three R's *haven't given much thought to whether pupils should be encouraged to do independent thinking or not. Sharpening the focus on problem-solving methods is the theme of the author here. He is coordinator of general education, Charlotte High School, Rochester, New York.*

---

or to THE answer, it does, at least, lead the individual to a *justified* and rational judgment.

Teaching Critical Thinking

Teachers are only too well aware that factual content is quickly forgotten once final examinations are passed. More likely to serve the student throughout his lifetime are the skills, the understandings and attitudes, and the habits which are developed during the school years. The teacher's function in America has therefore come to be seen as not only the transmittal of the heritage of the past but also as the preparation of the pupil by means of an active apprenticeship to participate effectively in the exigencies of the future. "Education for citizenship" we call it.

Since small children are essentially imitators and since up to about age twelve most pupils have their major decisions made for them, the earlier that secondary pupils and teachers start the conscious cultivation of the skill of critical thinking, the better. Although what is simple for one person may be frustrating for another, every pupil is capable of some degree of critical thinking.

Fortunately, much can be done to sharpen the focus on problem-solving methods without slighting attention to state-mandated content. As John Dewey has said, "We can have facts without thinking, but we cannot have thinking without facts."

Specifically, traditional topical content can easily be reworded into a sequence of student-oriented problems. For example, a traditional topic such as "Westward Expansion" becomes "In What Ways Did the Westward Movement of Our Frontier Contribute to My Present American Way of Life?" and the topic "Modern Vocations" becomes "Where Do I Fit into the Changing Ways in Which Modern Americans Earn Their Livings?" Teacher-pupil planning of procedures through these six problem-solving steps is then in order: (1) defining the problem specifically; (2) suspending judgment; (3) gathering and evaluating information; (4) formulating and choosing from among alternative solutions; (5) testing the results; (6) repeating steps 1 through 5 if necessary.

By such rewording of topics and reworking of classroom procedures, what was static and impersonal to the pupil becomes personal and meaningful to him. Even more important than the information gained is the problem-solving experience of working, often co-operatively with others, toward recognized goals. In this kind of teaching there is an emphasis upon taking the pupil from where he is as a thinking individual and in developing his skills, understandings and attitudes, and habits of workmanship from that point.

The teacher who would develop the mind of the pupil as a functioning tool rather than as a passive receptacle needs not only to be a patient teacher and a critical thinker himself but he should also know each individual youngster as personally as possible. Sometimes this works in reverse: a youngster in the course of evaluating alternative choices (a vital element of much critical thinking) will reveal himself to his teacher.

For example, a technique useful in weighing the pros and cons of an issue is made up of these three steps:

(*a*) List the "pros" and "cons" in parallel columns. (The items which a pupil includes and omits are revealing in terms of his background, his persistence, and his power of analysis.)

(*b*) Assign to each item a comparative numerical value from 1 through 5 as follows: 1. Worth noting, but not very important. 2. Of greater significance, but it could be overlooked. 3. An important item which should not be ignored. 4. A major point which will be difficult to counterbalance. 5. An extremely serious consideration which probably cannot be counterbalanced. (The

weighting which a pupil gives to each item is often quite revealing of his sense of values and of his likes and dislikes.)

(*c*) Total the score for each column and compare. (The comparative results cannot be taken as a completely valid example of critical thinking, of course, because a student's list may be incomplete, or his values may bespeak immaturity, or a single major point may outweigh a multitude of lesser points at a ratio of greater than 5 to 1; but the totals are probably significant where they reveal a wide difference of preference. Also significant is the degree to which pupils are willing to accept whatever conclusions straight thinking leads them to, even though these conclusions may be unpleasant.)

There are other techniques basic to effective critical thinking, such as the organization of data so that pertinent factors of any given problem will not be overlooked, the use of library facilities, and the synthesizing of material from many sources into a new production by this six-step method of writing "research" papers:

(1) Put only one fact or idea on a 3″ × 5″ card.

(2) Perfect an outline of the total subject as the material is gathered, if there is no predetermined outline.

(3) Classify each card according to the outline's final divisions and subdivisions.

(4) Sort the cards into their subdivision groupings.

(5) Arrange the cards within each group. This is the important step in which appear inconsistencies, contradictions, and areas where more information is needed. Creative interpretations (the insights of generalizations and theories) are also arrived at and added here.

(6) Write your own version after complete evaluation and absorption of the data, the ideas, and the interpretations gathered.

In the development of critical thinking, the several mechanics and routines can be taught, but the crucial "catching of an insight" can merely be encouraged, not imposed. For example, Louis Pasteur from his thousands of experiments had the insight to propound the germ theory of disease, and life has been better ever since. Doubtless, few of our pupils will be possessed of the persistence and the genius of Louis Pasteur; but certainly students who WANT to do critical thinking will excel those who fail to recognize its desirability. When properly motivated students stay with a problem longer, they are more likely to achieve a break-through by perceiving new interrelationships among pertinent data, discovering a hidden factor, viewing the whole problem from a new approach. Pupils come to enjoy the sense of discovery and relief, the feeling that things are "right" and that they "make sense" which comes with successful critical thinking on matters appropriate to their abilities.*

Obstacles to Critical Thinking

Within the individual pupil are several things that can militate against the teacher's efforts to cultivate effective critical thinking: emotional and psychological predilections, chronic pessimism or optimism, prejudice, superstition, adherence to "party-line" doctrines, neophobia or fear of anything new, stubborn pride against admitting that an earlier position was mistaken, lack of moral courage to defy the mores of the crowd, intellectual laziness, a fetish for consistency, a propensity for inconsistency, a predilection for fixing blame rather than finding constructive improvements, inability to come to decisions, a compulsion toward any decision so as to resolve the purgatory of indecision, the tendency of young people to see things as all black or all white to the

* Space limitations prohibit further development of this section on "Teaching Critical Thinking," but for further treatment of the whole subject the reader is referred to the 1956 pamphlet, "Critical Thinking in the Discussion of Current Affairs," available without charge from the Junior Town Meeting League, 356 Washington Street, Middletown, Connecticut.

exclusion of various shades of gray, the tendency to rationalize and to set up double standards for one's own advantage, provincialism, imperfect semantics, susceptibility to techniques of propaganda, and so on.

Within the school are additional obstacles to effective critical thinking: There are teachers who are emotionalists, who are protagonists in controversial issues, who themselves tend to reason by analogy and illogic, and who do not consciously cultivate critical thinking within their pupils. There are examinations which primarily test memory rather than power of judgment and interpretation. There are widely heterogeneous classes and too-large classes.

And within our American society are further elements which make difficult the way of the egghead: We are a gadget-happy people with a feverish determination to keep up with the Joneses and to be entertained; our prosperity does not breed hungry intellects; a certain defensive psychology has made it "safer" for the individual to be a conformist; and there are still vestiges of authoritarian homes, religious orthodoxy, straight-ticket voting, and isolationist nationalism.

These and other obstacles, however, should not deter the teacher from cultivating critical thinking within his pupils; rather, they help to point up the imperativeness of the effort if the essence of American democracy is not to be lost by default within the classrooms of our secondary schools.

❖

Emergency Measure

By J. A. MARTIN
(Placerville, California)

What do you do when one of those "what in the world can I do now" situations arises in which you want to keep the class occupied, yet have nothing for them to do? Such a situation occurs occasionally even under the best of teaching systems. A typical example might be either the first or last day of school, or perhaps an occasion when you are called on unexpectedly to take over a class for another instructor.

The use of logic problems is a device which never fails to gain the attention of the entire class. Interest is maintained, for all students are able to participate in the solving of these stratagems.

To get the ball rolling, present a few basic facts outlining a situation and then request the class to explain the actions or the solution. Give only enough information to set the scene and then call on the class to determine the reason behind the act by the use of logic. You must serve as the moderator and carry the discussion forward by furnishing answers to questions asked by the class. Confine your answer to a simple "yes," "no," and occasionally an "immaterial" when the question has no bearing on the matter whatever. To keep the group alert, make it a practice to answer the same question only one time.

A typical logic problem is found in the following example:

George and Sam are in a room. Sam is sleeping on the couch. George is lying dead on the floor surrounded by broken glass and water. Who killed George and how did he die?

Eventually someone will discover that George is a goldfish who died when Sam, a dog, accidentally knocked over the fish bowl.

Explain beforehand that even if you know the answer, it is a lot of fun to watch the others trying to solve the problem. I make it a policy not to reveal the solution until the class figures it out, even though the period ends. One such puzzle has kept a group stumped for months. You can think up your own problems or call on the class for acceptable ones. An excellent source of fifty such puzzles is the book *How Come?* by Agnes Rogers (New York: Doubleday and Co., 1953).

P.S. Grownups like to solve logic problems too!

Further Reflections on Teacher Bias

By THOMAS E. ALLEN

ARTHUR GOLDBERG'S ARTICLE, "Teacher Bias and Social Values," in *The Clearing House* for October, 1956, stimulates thinking on matters too seldom broached in professional organs. It is the teacher's duty to instill values, that is, concepts of what is and what is not important, good, true, beautiful. Mr. Goldberg fears that, instead, what is often instilled is merely the teacher's bias. To avoid that unwholesome effect, Mr. Goldberg urges us "to ask every pupil to examine and re-examine" values.

The advice is good, but it needs elucidation because some values cannot be profitably examined by pupils, and others will be examined only if teachers are made mindful of a need to change in ways not specifically discussed in Mr. Goldberg's article.

Generally speaking, a right set of values has been conceived to be one which is in conformity with the supposed interests of whatever state is providing the schooling. The scholastic school could not have taught social equality for serfs. The schools of the slave South could not have taught that slavery was evil. The Soviet school cannot teach that capitalism is a good economic system.

Despotic governments find it easy to prescribe "right" values. But a democracy, because of the great number and disparity of opinions on every subject, cannot dictate a "right" set of values. On the other hand, a democracy, free though it leaves its citizens, nonetheless governs them; hence schools in a democracy are constrained to teach certain values as right—values which uphold the state, such as patriotism and respect for law.

Likewise, a school in the United States, as elsewhere, must teach certain other values essential to the society which supports the school. In the South a teacher may not teach that integration is desirable; in the North a teacher may not, in the classroom, endorse segregation.

Still other values are imposed upon us by the authority of tradition and experience. A teacher may not teach his pupils to be cruel, to be dirty, to bear false witness.

Public school teachers, then, have no choice as to whether they will teach these values to be right values: patriotism, respect for law, devotion to the chief features of the surrounding social and economic systems, compliance with long-accepted standards of ethics and morals. The college philosophy professor might well challenge his students with the task of arguing whether, or to what degree, such things as patriotism and kindness are right values. In the public school it is seldom appropriate to question these values.

There are, of course, even in the public schools, occasions when questions about such conventional values arise naturally from the subject being considered. Then an examination of them is appropriate. A Stefan Zweig short story, for instance, treats sympathetically a character who deserts his country's armed forces. If a pupil in the literature class should ask whether Zweig

---

EDITOR'S NOTE

What values should a public school teacher try to examine in the classroom? What values is it prudent not to question? To what extent does teacher bias interfere with efforts to instill sound values? What can be done to reduce damaging effects of teacher bias? These are basic questions of educational philosophy. See if you agree with the author, who is an English teacher at William Dean Howells Junior High School in Cleveland, Ohio.

---

is questioning certain basic values, the public-school teacher would have no honorable course but to examine the matter as objectively and thoroughly as possible. But to make a common practice of deliberately engaging these windmills of settled "right" values is unavailing and unwise in the public school.

However, there is an area in which the "rightness" of values is not a settled issue. Here the teacher can tellingly influence his pupils by following Mr. Goldberg's recommendation to have them examine fully the assortment of standards which the world thrusts out to them. The ability of a teacher to do this is limited in whatever measure he is prejudiced or narrow. Two not entirely distinct factors are operative in making one prejudiced and narrow: (1) one's particular social, economic, and cultural background; (2) a susceptibility to propaganda.

Many teachers, coming as they do from the lower middle class and tending naturally to wish to inculcate their bias in their pupils, react violently to a rejection of middle-class values. A teacher by so doing may not only stifle any possibility of a cool examination of values, but he may actually alienate his pupils and the community upon which the school depends.

Needless to say, a teacher cannot help seeking to pull his pupils "up" to an acceptance of "right" values. But he should be able to transcend his bias to the extent of conceding that values other than his own may be "right." A teacher should not, for example, be shocked by the phenomenon of a debt-ridden father lavishing needed money on an expensive Christmas toy for a child when a cheaper gift would have served the purpose. A teacher should not be horrified by the gin-sweetened breath of a P.T.A. mother. He should not be appalled by others' lustier attitudes toward sex and blasphemy. He should acknowledge that all about him are people who are good despite the fact that their values are quite different from his own.

The teacher who is limited by a rigid or narrow set of values might never understand, or teach pupils to understand, a rascal like pipe-smoking, lying, truant Huck Finn or that collector-dodging windbag Wilkins Micawber. Worse, such a teacher might never bring his pupils to appreciate the insignificance of sins like those of Huck and Micawber in determining the worth of a soul.

In education and aesthetics, too, a teacher must be careful not to insist that pupils accept his set of values. The teacher, steeped in academic learning, conditioned to like certain music, art, literature, may have a set of values entirely foreign to his pupils. The teacher must try to create at least a modicum of respect for that set of values. But he should not be vexed or alarmed if, after all his efforts to make Shakespeare or Beethoven palatable to his pupils, some of them should still prefer a novel by Mailer or a tune by Berlin. We should keep in mind Mr. Goldberg's point that "ditchdigger" is not an insulting epithet in all quarters. Some people find such occupations as ditchdigging altogether honorable and, incidentally, more remunerative than those of many readers of the *Saturday Review*.

The other factor which shrinks a teacher's perspective is propaganda, i.e., one-sided argument. Many teachers permit political and religious convictions to tilt their teaching. The amount of damage a teacher thus inflicts upon his teaching depends upon the degree to which he is a victim of propaganda. A propaganda victim cannot examine values dispassionately. The question is: How can we, beleaguered as we are by howling tribes of special interests, avoid being victimized by propaganda?

The answer, I suppose, is that probably we cannot escape entirely. Nevertheless, we can take certain steps to reduce our vulnerability. We can make sure that we learn the arguments of our opponents as well as those of our own side. We can demand evidence

for any disputed proposition, regardless of our inclination to accept it without proof. We can resolve that what we choose to believe without proof we will not teach our pupils to be true.

So let us, by all means, follow Mr. Goldberg's advice to examine and re-examine values in the classroom. We shall be able to do so more effectively if we leaven our zeal with a constant consciousness of three points:

(1) Certain settled values cannot be made the subject of examination by public school pupils.

(2) A teacher must be alert to prevent his social, cultural, and economic bias from constricting the spirit of his classroom and frustrating calm evaluation of values.

(3) A teacher must always test his own criteria of truth to make sure that propaganda is not vitiating his efforts to help pupils discover sound values.

What Is a Good School Program?

A good school program does not come about as an accident. Such a program is the result of careful planning and wholehearted co-operation on the part of the home, the school and the community.

If the school is to carry on a successful program, it cannot isolate itself from other community services for children. It is to the advantage of the school for the community to have adequate health resources so that children may receive necessary physical examinations. Community recreation facilities which may be used to augment the regular school program can do much toward furnishing meaningful experiences and activities for the child. Social agencies which provide counselling services and financial assistance to the child and his parents help the individual to keep adjusted in the society in which he moves.

Two problems present themselves in connection with any discussion dealing with home-school relationships. The first problem becomes evident in the fact that large numbers of parents hold the school entirely responsible for the success or failure of the child. This is definitely an indication that among citizens there is a lack of understanding of what the school is attempting to do. Here the second problem becomes apparent: there is an equally definite indication of the need for the school to relate more adequately its program to the county and community programs for the welfare of its children.

As a first step in solving these problems, it would seem important to help school patrons understand both the broad objectives and the specific aims of the school. Parents should be encouraged to visit the schools, to ask questions about the program and to know the teachers in order to obtain a picture of the school's role in the community.

The Florida Citizens Committee on Education reports that "two-thirds of the citizens who respond to this item on the check list consider home-school relationships unsatisfactory at present. About one half of these blame the parents, and the other half blame the schools.

"Hundreds of parents never visit the schools, and hundreds more visit only when the child is in trouble. This is seldom a time for learning about the total objectives of the school program."

The members of our instructional personnel are to be commended on the fine work they have done in coordinating the work in their various fields of specialty on a county-wide basis. This has been done through the organization of county committees. It is hoped that more and more lay citizens will participate in the work of these committees. Through such participation there can be developed a consciousness of the way in which a school program blends into all other community services for children. Interest will be increased, and the school program as a whole will be better understood and accepted to the end that all children will receive a better chance for happiness and success.—W. D. REYNOLDS in the *Journal* of the Florida Education Association.

Success in Classroom Control

By ROBERT D. CROSSAN

WHAT ARE THE FACTORS that determine success or failure in classroom control? These six would seem to answer the question: skill in planning; preparation of students for each activity; fairness, firmness, and consistency; keenness in observing students; sense of responsibility for the entire class; and the "intangible"—strength of personality.

There is no substitute for careful planning. The rule should be to overplan. The wise teacher plans more work than can possibly be completed. Quite often the inexperienced teacher takes home stacks of papers to grade and neglects to plan adequately for the next day's work. As a result, control problems develop, when idle minds and hands explore nonconstructive experiences.

Successful teachers don't assume that boys and girls will know what to do or will follow through on such knowledge, just because they have engaged in that particular activity many times previously. Even such routine movements as going from one section of the room to another section of the room require careful preparation of the students by the teacher and, of course, follow-through supervision. The point to emphasize is that it must be day-after-day and activity-after-activity preparation, both as to directions and as to conduct standards.

The F.F.C. plan is another factor in effective control—fairness, firmness, and consistency. It isn't sufficient that the teacher can satisfy his own conscience as to his sense of fairness; he must convince the youngsters in his charge that he is being fair with them.

Firmness does not imply rudeness or discourtesy. It does not rule out respect for boys and girls as human beings, with dignity and rights of their own. Surveys and research studies have indicated time and time again that students like a strict teacher who is also fair. They like the security which is the outgrowth of the classroom that is orderly and efficiently managed. They want to know the limits and boundaries that are to govern their conduct; in brief, they want to know how far they can go.

The new teacher who starts out at the beginning of the school year as an easy mark in the area of control is likely never to regain the class. At best, it will be an uphill struggle. The cause may be won or lost in the first five minutes of the first day of the term. New teachers too often are fearful that they will lose the good will of their classes if they are strict. The moans and groans and complaints that go home to "mama" or that are heard in the corridors disturb the neophyte and cause him to feel that he isn't liked; however, if the teacher is fair and projects his personality in a warm and friendly way, strictness of itself

---

EDITOR'S NOTE

Here is eminent good sense. It may be especially valuable to a beginning teacher or to one who is a prospective teacher.

We remember that a principal once told a new teacher: "In your first teaching assignment, forget everything you learned about being brotherly to your students. Once you have obtained good control, then little by little relax, and soften your tactics." Let's stop with that or we'll be paraphrasing the entire article.

The author is assistant professor of education, Long Beach State College, California.

---

will not lose him a single student and may save a class for him.

Psychologists indicate that consistency is perhaps even more important than strictness. There are few things that create insecurity more readily in a class than inconsistency—not knowing for sure what a teacher's reaction is likely to be to a certain act. If the teacher is in good humor, the youngster can get away with murder. If he is in bad humor, woe be to the culprit who steps at all out of line. It is this kind of inconsistency that confuses youngsters and creates insecurity.

If student behavior is not observed, nothing can be done about that behavior. No one person can see everything that goes on in a classroom of thirty-five or forty dynamic living organisms; however, the batting average must be reasonably high if control is to be retained. The writer has been an observer in classrooms in which pencils, erasers, and other missiles were flying through the air, with the instructor blissfully unaware. In other classrooms this observer has witnessed fights between students, some involving fisticuffs and others involving the use of portable desks as chariots for the combatants—the battles not noticed by the teachers. In one instructor's classroom located on a second floor of a building, students would lean on the window ledges facing the street and bombard the pedestrians with oranges, bananas, and half-eaten sandwiches from their lunches eaten prematurely. The teacher was engaged in helping individual students with their art problems.

Teaching is a fast-moving job, which would be an easier one if we had eyes located at all strategic places in our heads, but the two eyes we do have must be used, and we cannot use them effectively by being statues in a fixed place in the classroom. A teacher, if he is to succeed in control, must have a sense of responsibility for the entire class. This responsibility goes with him when he is working with individual students or with small groups. His attention at frequent intervals must leave the small group or individual with whom he is working to see what is going on in the nooks and crannies of the room and to take whatever action the situation may require.

Why is it that one person can walk into a room and secure the attention of a class within a few seconds without uttering a word and another person can try everything from silence to standing on his head, and bedlam will reign supreme? Why is it that some people can receive every kind of special help that a principal or a supervisor can give and still be unable to master the art of classroom control? There is an intangible factor in a personality that students seem to sense from the first time that they lay eyes on their new teacher. For lack of better terminology, let us call it strength of personality. By the time a young person enters teacher training, he either has it or does not have it. The unfortunate part of it is that this factor cannot be identified until he takes over a class. This strength-of-personality factor isn't a special gift of a particular personality type. It is not a monopoly of the outgoing or extrovertive personality. Many an introvert who blushes when another adult speaks to him can control a classroom of forty "live" ones.

Success in classroom control is important for several reasons. Lack of success in this area is a common cause why many teachers lose their positions. Directed learning may not take place in an orderly room, but it will never take place in a chaotic room. In addition to these reasons the teacher's own mental health is at stake. Few occupations could be any more disagreeable than facing a noisy and insolent group of youngsters day after day.

Skillful use of the voice can be of tremendous help in controlling a class. One of the most effective teachers the writer ever saw in action seldom raised her voice and was a master in the utilization of voice

inflection. There are many tricks of the trade that were not mentioned in the foregoing analysis. Use of the knowing look, the frown, the smile, silence, showmanship, controlled anger, and many other devices, properly used, can be helpful, but the cause will be won or lost to the degree that the six major factors listed are brought into action.

This may be heresy but it seems to the writer that the wise teacher will begin with imposed controls and release them gradually as the class is able to accept the responsibilities of increased self-discipline. The new teacher must be prepared to accept many setbacks in working with young people and to realize that a technique that will work with one student will not necessarily work with another. The skillful teacher must differentiate between long-range and short-range control measures and be honest enough to recognize which is which. The understanding teacher distinguishes between his dislike for the individual's act and his feeling toward the individual himself, for the student will realize it if that distinction is not made. If we really believe that all behavior is caused, then of course no possible solution can be effective until the multiple causes of an individual's behavior are determined. In the meantime, however, many short-range measures have to be taken in order to make directed learning a possibility for the many other students in the classroom who also have rights, not the least of which is the right to learn.

The understanding teacher realizes that many acts of anger on the part of youngsters are not directed at him but are the manifestations of underlying emotional problems that would tear apart adults, let alone youngsters.

The foregoing analysis probably seems like an oversimplification of a complex problem, which indeed it is. There is no subject more complex than people, and classroom control is related to people. This article has been predicated on the assumption that teachers like students, for we cannot fool youngsters on that score, and that teachers are fascinated by the art of teaching, which is a subject as broad as life itself.

◆

Commandments for Graduate Students

By ROY F. RUEBEL
(Ellensburg, Washington)

And the Institution spake all these words, saying:

I am the College of thy choice, which have brought thee up out of the land of Ignorance, into the house of Learning.

Thou shalt keep thine eyes turned upward.

Thou shalt not make up thine own format, nor thine own spellings, nor thine own grammatical constructions.

Thou shalt bow down thyself to thy Committee and serve them; for thy Committee is immovable and will keep thee busy unto the third and fourth hour of the morning;

And recommend degrees unto thousands of them that follow the regulations to the letter.

Thou shalt not take the name of thy Committee Chairman in vain; for the Chairman will not hold him competent that taketh his name in vain.

Remember the sabbath day, for there will be no classes.

Six years shalt thou labor and do much of thy work;

But the seventh year is the year of thy doctorate. In it thou shalt not have any free time, thou nor thy wife, nor thy son, nor thy daughter, nor the stranger that is within thy gates;

For in six years the men are separated from the boys, and the seventh year should be the end.

Honor thy Adviser and thy Department Head; that thy days of study may be shortened and thy degree conferred.

Ninth Graders Tackle Juvenile Delinquency

By
CHARLES LENZ ROBERTS

MY NINTH-GRADE CORE STUDENTS had considerable difficulty deciding what topic they would study for the coming term. Teacher-pupil planning was to many of them a new experience, and while they were enthusiastic about their plans, they were also anxious to put me to test: many different topics were proposed which seemingly had little relationship to one another. The students were waiting to see what I would do with the situation. Would I betray a lack of respect for their choices by canceling out those topics which didn't relate to the others, or would we spend the term trying to grasp information which was without continuity?

Some of the expressed choices were: World Wars I and II, communism, medicine, psychology, the FBI, and juvenile delinquency. Our problem was to cement these varying topics into a meaningful term's work or reject several of the topics which seemed irrelevant. Most of the suggestions were obviously inexhaustible and could of themselves have made full units of study.

However, after considerable give and take, we were able to arrive at a functional unit which would incorporate all the suggestions. We would spend the term on "The Law and Our Future." It would then be necessary to delimit our separate choices in relation to this general theme.

We next decided that the topics should be in some logical order if the term's work were to unfold in a sensible and meaningful way.

The students needed considerable help here, but I was determined that their course of study should be as easy to follow as possible so that they would have a clear direction toward the conclusion of their first core unit. It was agreed that we could progress from problems immediate to our own neighborhood, and gradually expand in scope to include national and international law.

Explicitly, then, our unit would proceed from juvenile delinquency to international law and order.

In order that each student could elect a choice on the basis of some enlightenment, I wrote on the board with their help the general problems that each topic might encompass. I then suggested that I introduce the new unit with, "What is a juvenile delinquent?" so that we might define our terms. They agreed to this, and then proceeded by ballot to select their own subjects which they would pursue individually or in committees.

EDITOR'S NOTE

This happened last year in a ninth-grade core class at Johnson Junior High School in Stratford, Connecticut, where the author was then a teacher of social studies. It is an illustration of teacher-pupil planning. We like to say teacher-pupil rather than pupil-teacher because, after all, the teacher is the one who gives direction to the planning and learning by pupils.

Mr. Roberts is now teaching seventh grade at the Walden School in New York City.

The Law and Our Future

I. What is a juvenile delinquent?
II. Basic needs of the individual
  Physical, emotional, psychological, social needs
III. Possible causes of juvenile delinquency
  Delinquent's early history (infancy, childhood)
  Attitudes, interests, activities
  Effects of movies, TV, comics, radio
  Home and neighborhood
  Parents, family, discipline
IV. The law and the courts
  Laws which are broken
  Settling matters in and out of court
  Court structure of our state
V. Facts we should have
  About narcotics, alcohol
  About boy-girl relationships
VI. Getting help to the juvenile delinquent
  Influence of churches and schools
  Child guidance clinics
VII. National crime trends
  Relationship between juvenile and adult crime
  FBI and other law-enforcing agencies
VIII. The Supreme Court
  Structure of the Federal government and courts
  Important decisions
  Biographies of justices
IX. Communism as a threat to international law and order
X. International law and order after
  World War I—League of Nations
  World War II—United Nations

Introducing a study of juvenile delinquency may be considered a sensitive assignment for any teacher, for upon attitudes established in the introduction the entire unit can become a worthwhile application of the scientific method or can revert to a unit so emotionally charged that it may have to be dropped. It is therefore imperative that the teacher constantly reassure his students that while the term "juvenile delinquent" may apply to certain of their contemporaries in certain localities, it does not necessarily fit any students in their classroom or very likely in the entire school:

> Many of us have committed petty crimes as a part of growing up, which does not mean we're delinquents; before the year is out we will have done things for which we're ashamed, nor do these acts make us delinquents. A juvenile delinquent is an *habitual* threat to his community and has *repeatedly*[1] broken the law. I know of no such person in this classroom, and I doubt if there are many in the entire school.

Finger pointing is a danger in a study of this kind. Thoughtless students may take satisfaction in labeling fellow class members as potential delinquents. And more sensitive students way well point the finger at themselves, incriminating themselves for acts which are essentially normal in the growing process. It is best, therefore, to point the finger at an "abstract" delinquent who lives in a nearby city, in order to preserve the impersonal atmosphere that should be present.

I then proceeded to keynote three premises for the study of juvenile delinquency. The first was that most behavior problems are caused, and that these causes can frequently be traced: school window smashing may possibly be traced to hatred of an institution that has meant constant scholastic failure for the individual, to dislike for adult authority in general, and to many other factors. A second premise was that there is rarely a single cause or explanation for a person's delinquency, but several or many as in the foregoing example. The third premise was that if a person really wants to solve his difficulties, he can do so on his own if he can locate the causes of his misconduct, though in many cases professional help may be advisable. A parent, teacher, counselor, clergyman, physician, psychiatrist—these are people who can offer help or direct the individual to a person who is qualified to help. But all the consultation and therapy available will be of little use if the individual isn't strongly desirous of changing his pattern of conduct.

Perhaps the most controversial aspect of my introduction was my remarks about the

[1] William C. Kvaraceus, *The Community and the Delinquent* (New York: World Book Co., 1954), p. 60.

psychology of behavior. The problem was to give the students some explanation of our psychological functions in such a calm fashion as to dismay as few students as possible. To avoid such an explanation would be to deny the causative nature of juvenile behavior; and further, it would deprive the students of one of the strong motivational forces in the study, for psychology—in small doses—is one of their keenest interests.

By a cartoon drawing I presented to the class three terms that psychologists frequently employ to describe how behavior is determined.[3] The first term was the "id," which includes the basic drives that keep man from becoming extinct: need for food, maintenance of body warmth, reproduction, avoidance of pain. The second term was the "ego," that part of the self of which we are always aware. It is the conscious part of our life. Its purpose seems to be to help us attain an equilibrium within ourselves; to sustain a measure of tranquillity and satisfaction in our daily existence. The third term was the "superego," the conscience—that part of us that gives us the ability to choose right from wrong. We absorb ethical concepts from those we love and respect—parents and family members, friends, the heroes of our daily lives.

A sense of fulfillment comes to our ego selves as long as our superego remains free from guilt. It is the active conscience that keeps us from doing misdeeds, the guilty conscience that causes us to regret our wrong doings. But a lack of superego—it has had little opportunity to develop—permits the individual to commit delinquent acts without pangs of regret. A juvenile delinquent may be a person whose conscience rarely hurts: he can continue to steal without being unhappy about it. He is not equipped to know right from wrong, and so society must be protected from him.

With the keynote established, the students began compiling their information from any sources available. They sought information from our library which had excellent civics and guidance texts; from film libraries; from the juvenile court; from doctors and teachers. Adult books on psychology and delinquency were given to the guidance counselor who was best qualified to interpret their contents when asked to by the students. In this way they were on their own, with some understandings concerning human behavior and with a goal clearly in mind. Within three weeks it would be their opportunity to have complete charge of the class, to present their findings to their classmates, and to lead them in discussion.

An objective evaluation of a unit of this sort is not easily made. However, this unit of study is submitted for consideration because (a) it was based on student selection; (b) it permitted wide variation in student interest; (c) the responsibility for research and presentation lay with the students themselves, so that their participation in planning and producing was at a maximum; (d) and the unit gave them increased respect for their own good sense and ideas.

These are factors that should bring success to a learning situation. Some proof of our success may be that later on in the year the class chose a new unit which required further investigations into juvenile delinquency and other topics related to it.

[3] My use of these terms was suggested by Kvaraceus, *op. cit.*, p. 45.

Girls in Junior High Analyze Their Problems

By
ELLIOTT E. KIGNER

ONE DAY, as part of a survey I was carrying out in conjunction with a course at New York University, I asked the students in my all-girl ninth-grade general science class to list on slips of paper their five most vital personal problems. All twenty-three girls found the request to be a novel one, and some of them even seemed to be stirred up by it. They were girls who planned to go into the business world when they left school, and they therefore had less interest in science than most youngsters their age.

Thus was started, quite by accident, a group guidance program that was destined to prove very effective. Our school psychologist, Mr. Van Arsdale, agreed that here was an opportunity for the girls to work on problems of major importance to them.

We decided that the class itself should do the major work in mapping out a discussion program.

EDITOR'S NOTE

Wasn't it Professor Thomas Briggs who said that the school ought to teach students to do better the things they were going to do anyway? This article is a case in point. It comes to grips with the conditions that junior-high-school girls believe bothersome and annoying.

And we think it is an interesting account of a four-week experiment in group guidance at Thomas Jefferson Junior High School in Fair Lawn, New Jersey, where the author is on the professional staff.

As a preliminary step, the problems they had listed were read to the girls. They may be summarized thus:

(1) The mother who is inquisitive and who restricts the daughter's activities. The mother may want to know all the details about where the daughter is going when she leaves the house in the evening; the parent may prohibit the daughter from engaging in certain group activities (such as going to a dance at the local youth canteen).

(2) Interference of a younger brother or sister. The girl may complain that her telephone conversations can never be private.

(3) A younger brother or sister who, supposedly, is never at fault. The younger sister, for example, may not be criticized if her room is in a mess, whereas the older daughter can expect harsh words if hers is slightly untidy.

(4) Dating problems. Most of these problems also fit into the first category, since they are a result of parental restriction. The parents try to prevent the daughter from going out on dates, do not approve of the boys the daughter knows, or require her to be home from a date too early.

(5) School experience, educational plans, future plans. Some problems which fit into this broad category were listed by the girls, but these definitely were not mentioned so frequently as were those for the four areas above.

After hearing the comments, many of the girls wanted to discuss the replies at length. The class soon realized that this would take more than one period and, therefore, that an agenda would have to be prepared.

The students then voted for a committee of five girls who would plan what could be done and organize the agenda, after considering the views of the class.

The committee met with the psychologist and me and were shown various activities that might be carried out:

1. The school psychologist has a fairly large collection, of the Science Research Associates' "Life Adjustment Pamphlets," which might be used by the class or by individuals.

2. It would be possible to make use of two very good filmstrips, with accompanying phonograph narration, on teen-age problems.

3. We have access to a number of mental health films, which might fit in.

4. Role playing, as a device for coping with problems, might be one of the activities.

5. Most important, it was expected that discussions of the pupils' immediate problems would be the major method used.

The committee did not plan too far ahead. They simply listed a few of the topics the class wanted to discuss and stated that these could be covered in the next two or three periods. Each member of the committee would act as moderator on a different day. In addition the psychologist said that he would arrange to attend the class frequently while the program was in operation.

First Evaluation

The class showed a keen interest in the activity, and the first few days produced lively discussions. After the third period, the girls were asked to list the ways in which they thought they were benefiting from this activity and the shortcomings of it.

Their favorable reactions may be summarized by saying that they felt good (a) at being able to express their problems and (b) in realizing that other people have similar difficulties.

Two common criticisms in this evaluation were:

(1) The discussions jumped too frequently from one topic to the next.

(2) Mr. Van Arsdale and I did not give definite advice. Thus when students asked what they should do in certain situations, some of them were disappointed at not getting our opinions.

The first criticism was taken in hand by the organizing committee who worked out with the class a list of specific topics which might be discussed in future sessions. These ideas came from the general topic which they called "boys":

1. Should blind dates be arranged?
2. What is an ideal date?
3. Should pickups be avoided?
4. Is there anything wrong with dating someone of a different religion?
5. Is it necessary to have dates without parents' knowledge?
6. Are parents right in their opinions about automobile riding with boys?
7. Should pickups, other than in cars, be avoided?

After a vote, it was decided that the sixth, fifth, and fourth questions, in that order, are the most important problems and should be discussed first.

Once the girls realized how Mr. Van Arsdale and I viewed this activity I believe they were less willing to levy the second criticism. Essentially, our contribution to the class was through the questions we asked. For example, the girl who related the story about how her younger brother teased her would be asked by us questions such as these: Why does he do the things he does? Why does it bother you so much?

It should be mentioned here that often members of the class would raise good, thoughtful questions which would be directed toward particular girls. Frequently, girls other than the ones describing their problems showed insight and came up with solutions. Therapeutically speaking, of course, it would be better for the ones who

express the problems to see into them on their own or to come up with the answers on their own; but I suspect that opinions from peers are highly effective in helping persons view problems realistically.

Another example which showed the part we played in the class was our suggestion to the class that they determine definitely whether or not there is agreement between parents and children as to what age the children should start dating. The girls polled themselves, the results of which are shown below. From the poll they noticed that parents in general believe the acceptable age is later than what the girls believe it to be.

WHEN SHOULD YOU START DATING?

Age	*Your Opinion*	*Your Parents' Opinion*
12	0	0
13	7	5
14	14	3
15	1	7
16	0	6
17	0	0

Mid-Point Evaluation

About the middle of this program the pupils were asked again to express their opinions as to the value of what we were doing. Here is a nonedited sampling of their responses:

"I think this is very good, no homework, and helps us solve our problems and we should continue this for at least two more weeks."

"Basically this type of unit is very helpful. It gives you a chance to really get your problems solved. But it's my opinion that most girls tell about situations and when the time is up nothing is ever solved."

"It is very interesting but several of us don't participate in the discussion."

"I think what we are studying is terrific; let's keep it up. It helps get things off your chest and it helps us to get things straight in teen-age life. After all we teen-agers are supposed to be mixed up, so why not get untangled?"

Final Evaluation

At the end of the program, approximately four weeks after it was initiated, the girls were asked to show how the program helped them and where it failed. Here, again, is a nonedited sampling of their remarks:

"It helped me because now I understand why my little brother does things like teasing and following the way I do things or imitating me."

"It fell down when the specific problems were discussed too much and too long."

"I got some help out of this in discussing various problems in a group. But a lot of times the period would come to an end without a real solution. It seemed to me that most girls wanted to relate different situations and the person who was conducting the discussion let one after another change the topic. The one real help I got was learning to put my problem before the group without embarrassment."

"It fell down when different people wanted different topics and by the time they chose we had around ten minutes to discuss the chosen topic."

"It didn't help. I had already solved my problems."

"It helped me to realize that my parents aren't all wrong."

"I think it was good because it gave us a better understanding with our parents and friends."

"It helped me with one of my biggest problems and I finally solved it."

"I don't think it failed at all. I think it helped everybody in a way."

Teacher's Comments

It seems to me there are at least five ways whereby the pupils benefited from this program.

First of all, the expression of problems coupled with the realization that others had similar difficulties, apparently produced some tension release.

Secondly, inhibition lessened as girls, without embarrassment, described problems before the group.

Thirdly, a number of the girls came to Mr. Van Arsdale and me in order to discuss their problems. The group guidance was thus supplemented by individual guidance.

Fourthly, I suspect that there were girls in the group who, although not appearing to take an active part in the discussions, were actually identifying their own problems with those discussed and were, in turn, benefiting. In fact, several girls who claimed they profited from the discussions did not play an active role in them.

Finally, I consider the program to have been effective in terms of the major objectives of guidance. It would have failed had it not satisfied these major aims: to develop self-understandings and to apply these understandings toward the solving of problems with maturity.

❖

The Main Task of Any Teacher

By GALEN M. JARVIS
(Evanston, Illinois)

Among the many responsibilities of the classroom teacher, motivation looms as most significant to the education of the individual. Many things must be accomplished in each period of time allotted to teaching students, but what is our main responsibility to the youth under our supervision? I believe it is to make our subject the most interesting, the most fascinating experience the student can have.

Students want to know things and they enjoy the experience of learning, but the direction of their knowledge and the effort they apply to realize that knowledge must be encouraged and channeled by the teacher. Appealing to curiosity and interest, making the steps in learning worth while, relating the content to everyday life, and constructing a vivid picture are the foundation stones on which to build pleasure as a part of learning subjects.

A textbook is a neutral symbol until the teacher brings it to life with a vivid realization that herein lie the answers to many questions. Aroused by his curiosity, the student will find an answer, and with a new concept of what knowledge is, will advance to another problem more eagerly.

It is important to the learning process that the teacher not hurry the student to find a solution. He should understand what the teacher is talking about; he should have a clear picture in mind of the issue under consideration. The young scholar should turn over in his mind the many-sided problem till a vivid picture emerges to view, and he should learn the value of thinking in clear images—then advancing quickly. Finally, the teacher should leave with each student an insatiable desire to inquire further.

Bad teaching is almost entirely responsible for a dislike of a subject. If the student is not interested or the material seems dull, perhaps it has been approached from the wrong angle. Even though students delight in their work, they must be challenged by the problem-solving features and the worth-while results of their effort.

We do not seek perfection in our students, and it should be emphasized that the individual will receive in proportion to what he gives. Further, we should stress that disagreeable content is not in the nature of the subject—it is in the minds of students which have been conditioned to dislike subjects by traditions passed down from parents and adults, and by practices of unimaginative teachers imitating other unimaginative teachers.

Interest is the first and last rung on the ladder of knowledge.

Mobile Teacher-Retirement Systems

By B. EVERARD BLANCHARD

ONE OF THE MANY IMPORTANT CONCERNS of the professional educator is the provision for his retirement. That many states have tended to increase such benefits is well known, and what is likely to happen in the future may gravitate toward what may be termed a "mobile pension plan."

Pension and retirement systems are controlled by each state. Just as with teaching certificates, no reciprocal agreements exist among the various states. For example, a teacher engaged in high-school work in Illinois with a valid teaching certificate for the state of Illinois may locate in New York only after having made application to the state department of education there. If the same individual has taught for some eight years in Illinois, his pension privileges cease upon his leaving Illinois and entering New York, and he must begin such pension contributions all over again. Teachers leaving one state to enter another generally receive a refund of part or all of their accumulated retirement benefits, but the individual is still left in a rather unfortunate position years later upon reaching the required retirement age level.

There is evidence that state governments are beginning to recognize that teachers in general have a very high rate of mobility and are apt to work for quite a few school systems in different states before actually settling down permanently. To enable members of the teaching profession to gain full credit for each year of successive teaching, the writer suggests that the "mobile-retirement" concept be given serious thought by educators. Under this scheme, a teacher who has contributed to a particular state retirement system and whose employer may also have contributed a certain per cent to the employee's credit could carry his accumulated retirement credits from one state to another, as long as he remained in the teaching profession. In other words, as the teacher moves from one state to another, his built-up financial reserves move with him. Thus after having spent a lifetime in the career of teaching, an educator might look forward to a more stable degree of financial security as compared to our present practice where faithful years of teaching service are rewarded by a mere pittance!

Retirement counselors claim that the notion of mobile pension benefits is the "coming thing." Apparently, there appears to be a growing consciousness on the part of teachers that this type of financial protection is indispensable if we are to retain competent individuals in the teaching profession. The advantage of such a plan is that it allows a teacher to move from one state to another and yet maintain his pension rights as he changes school systems.

In Toledo, Ohio, the United Auto Workers' members have their pension credits guaranteed even if they move from one industry to another in that area, as long as they move to an employer under contract

EDITOR'S NOTE

Ordinarily our editorial board is not interested in "should" articles. By that we mean articles that say "teachers should do this" or "pupils should do that." We prefer manuscripts that describe practices which have been found to be successful.

But here is a notable exception. The author has an idea which appeals to us as one of great merit and worthy of thoughtful consideration. He is superintendent of schools, Kunkle, Ohio.

with the United Auto Workers. An Amalgamated Clothing Workers' plan covers union members from coast to coast as long as they are in a shop covered by an Amalgamated contract. The United Mine Workers has a plan which permits a worker to maintain his pension rights as he changes employers, as long as he remains in industry. The West Coast canneries of Libby, McNeill and Libby recently voted approval of an agreement with the Western Council of Cannery Workers which provides a transferable form of retirement pay.

If education is considered "big business," recognizing apparent advances in industry and business should be correlated with educational practice. There is no doubt in the writer's opinion that if the concept of "mobile pension credits" were put to a direct ballot of the teaching personnel, it would receive favorable approval.

Such a practice to be considered by each state would advance education and subsequently assist in rewarding professional advancement and tenure in the teaching profession.

◆

The Teacher and Merit Rating

Shame on the people who say teachers don't want to be rated because they fear they might not measure up! Shame on them because they are right and don't stop to think why.

Listen to the hundreds of voices that say they oppose merit pay for teachers and you will hear such words as "unfairness," "subjectivity," "lack of criteria," "bad on morale." But what is behind the emotion they betray in their voices? Ask the teacher with a touch of grey in hair that says, "I've been through this before." With obvious restraint he will tell you of the day when the principal came into his classroom for the only visit of the year that would decide his pay, of the day that the school board's cousin was rated "A" when everyone knew better, of the day the list of "A," "B," and "C" teachers was posted for everyone to see, or of the day his salary was whispered in his ear with orders that no one else was to know. He might tell you about the time, too, that he had a "spat" with the principal and was reduced in rating.

These teachers who lived through the merit rating schemes of the 'thirties are quick to admit that they fear merit pay because they might not measure up—measure up to the rater's ideal, that is.

But listen to the protesting voices of teachers carefully and you will detect another basic reason teachers, young and old, go on the defensive in the merit pay issue. It's not a reason that everyone will readily admit to. These people who stand before youth each day listening to youth's ambitions, knowing youth's limitations, bolstering youth's successes, know better than anyone else in the world that a teacher can never be and do everything he wants to be and do for every child in his care. What a humbling and frustrating experience! He's not the teacher he wants to be, and he knows it. Too many pupils, too few materials, too little training, too much regimentation, too long hours, too short free periods, too many interruptions, and too much paper work stand in his way. He realizes, then, that any rating system that is accurate will reflect this failure to the world. It is asking too much of him to ask him to favor a system that may adversely affect his already meager pay check. He reacts negatively because, already overworked, he fears that merit pay may pressure him to do even more, when already he knows he cannot do all that should be done. He cannot measure up to his own ideal.

So, shame on anyone that says the good teacher is afraid to be rated. It is possible that the good teacher, the conscientious teacher, the dedicated teacher, the teacher touched and humbled by the importance of his teaching mission may be the one who fears merit pay more than any one in the school.—NORMAN E. HEARN in the *Michigan Education Journal*.

Tricks of the Trade

Edited by TED GORDON

COLORED CHALK CLEANUP: In my General Extension travels in Oregon, I find many teachers who do not know how to get colored chalk off (the kind intended for paper work only). In fact, I've seen Christmas and Halloween scenes that have been on chalk boards for many consecutive years. Actually, this is easy to remove:

(1) Use an abrasive, such as Bon Ami, Ajax, Dutch Cleanser, on a dampened cloth. *Test on the corner of the chalk board.* If the abrasive doesn't remove original color from the chalk board, you are fairly safe to go ahead.

(2) Remove all the chalk marks.

(3) Rinse the chalk board thoroughly. Chalk is mainly chalk dust and glue which is used as a binder; therefore, it's important to rinse the board thoroughly with water to remove the glue.

(4) Let dry thoroughly.

(5) Break in the board with a stick of chalk or with a dusty eraser.

(6) Next time purchase chalk that is made specifically for chalk boards and not for paper work. This information is usually given on the outside of the box; sometimes it is found on the inside.—E. MILTON GRASSELL, Oregon State System of Higher Education.

PARENT-TEACHER CONFERENCES: Parent-teacher conferences are a regular and important part of a school's activities. Better public relations can be fostered through the discussion of the child's problems both in the home and in school. The Madison school district of Phoenix, Arizona, has a working plan that can serve as a model for other schools contemplating such an undertaking. Conferences are scheduled in the fall and spring of each school year. Two afternoons and one evening are set aside for this purpose. Each appointment made with a parent is for twenty minutes.—NICHOLAS C. ALTAMURA, Madison Elementary School #1, Phoenix.

SAVE SAMPLES: Samples of students' work should be kept throughout a semester or a year. They may serve a variety of purposes, such as encouraging a student to surpass his previous records, enabling a teacher to evaluate a student's progress and to map out plans for stimulating further improvement, or helping parents to understand what their boys and girls are doing.—EMMA REINHARDT, Eastern Illinois State College, Charleston, Illinois.

PRIVATELY PUBLIC: When I first went into public-school teaching, it was after two years spent at a private school under the direction of the head of the science department. This man was very good and I was green. I was using the same texts as used in the private school and I asked this teacher to draw up four tests for my classes. He did so, knowing the text and ground to be covered. I prepared my classes as usual and did not look at the tests in advance. When the teaching was done, I was able to judge the type of instruction I was giving. It put me on my toes and helped a great deal.—WILLIAM E. GILLIS, Connecticut Association of Public School Superintendents, Middletown, Connecticut.

—■—

EDITOR'S NOTE: *Readers are invited to submit aids and devices which may be of help to others. Brief, original ideas are preferred; if an item is not original, be sure to give your source. This publication reserves all rights to material submitted, and no items will be returned. Address contributions to* THE CLEARING HOUSE.

Evaluating progress toward INTEGRATION

By
ELDRIDGE J. WATERS

THE BASIC PRINCIPLES for planning an educational program are the same whether the school system is racially integrated or racially segregated. A purposeful program will meet the various needs of the pupils whom it serves. In view of the school integration decision rendered by the United States Supreme Court on May 17, 1954, it is extremely important that educational leaders in communities which formerly had separate educational facilities for the races be cognizant of both the similarities and the differences among the pupils who must and should attend integrated schools. Also, they must focus attention upon any community customs or conditions which cause artificial differences, for the basic needs of human beings are essentially the same the world over.

This article will present some data taken from a study of week-end activities of fourth-, fifth-, and sixth-grade pupils of two schools in Wilmington, Delaware, in the spring of 1950. One was a school for white pupils in a privileged area, and the other a school for Negro pupils located in a less favorable section of the city. The children were asked to keep a diary record of all activities on a week end so that information could be gathered about their leisure time activities. A total of 260 white children and 397 Negro children turned in diaries. Each teacher working on the survey tabulated the results for her class and then summarized the information according to the amount of time children spent on various activities. On another sheet, she summarized according to number and per cent of hour units, the time spent alone, with family, with siblings, and with peers on various week-end activities.

Desegregation in the public schools of Wilmington was begun in the school year 1954-55, and it is a reasonable expectation that all formerly segregated school systems will eventually live up to the moral and legal spirit of the law. Therefore, it would be most interesting, significant, and important for educators, other community leaders, and parents to ascertain whether there were any differences between the way in which these two groups of racially different children attending different schools but under the same system, living in different neighborhoods of the city, spent their week ends.

The summaries made by the teachers were compiled by the writer and are presented in the table on page 474. The significance of the white-Negro differences was statistically calculated in per cent. The white-Negro tables which break the data down by activities have the significance of the differences indicated on the Negro table. A single asterisk (*) indicates that

EDITOR'S NOTE

It is reassuring to receive an article on desegregation that is neither emotional nor prejudiced. The author, who is principal of the Frederick D. Stubbs School in Wilmington, Delaware, writes of a survey of week-end activities of white and Negro pupils in two segregated schools in that city. It was made before Wilmington integrated its schools. The information is factual and presented objectively.

the white-Negro difference is significant at the .01 level (highly significant), while the double asterisk (**) indicates significance at the .001 level (even more highly significant).

The table shows the number of activities of these children classified according to work, games and sports, passive entertainment, and religious activities. The differences were very highly significant in paying jobs, out-of-school lessons, games and sports, and passive entertainment, while they were highly significant in religious and social activities. The question may be raised whether these are racial differences or differences caused by certain socioeconomic factors resulting from community patterns.

Despite these differences, progress toward integration in the public schools of Wilmington is moving rather satisfactorily from the kindergarten through posthigh-school courses. The results would probably be quite different if a study were made now similar to the one made in 1950 because there have been significant changes in community patterns in recent years. For example, the table shows that only 48.4 per cent of the Negro pupils watched television, while 68.8 per cent of the white pupils engaged in the same activity. This was probably due to an economic factor. Since employment opportunities for Negroes have improved, undoubtedly there is now a larger percentage of Negro families who own television sets.

The end of legal support of segregation and an enlightened public opinion have been the chief factors causing a change of policy in the leading Wilmington hotels and restaurants, in several churches and theaters, and in the use of public recreational facilities such as parks, swimming pools, and golf courses. Other factors have been the implementation of the open door policy in our YMCA and the YWCA, access to public libraries, a program of slum

SUMMARY OF ACTIVITIES

Activity	*No. Pupils*		*% Pupils*		*No. Hour Units*		*Av. No. Hours per Pupil Reporting This Activity*		*Range in Hours for Children Reporting*	
	White	*Negro*	*White*	*Negro*	*White*	*Negro*	*White*	*Negro*	*White*	*Negro*
All Work	213	343	81.9	86.4	583	1,006.5	2.74	2.9	—	—
Paying jobs	11	76	4.2	19.1**	25	240	2.27	3.1	½–7½	½–15
Home chores	189	314	72.6	79.1	410.5	662	2.17	2.1	½–9	½–9
School homework	59	89	22.6	22.4	68	70	1.15	0.8	½–4	½–5
Out-of-school lessons	59	50	22.6	12.6**	79.5	39.5	1.34	0.7	½–3½	½–2
All Hobbies, Games, and Sports	258	331	99.2	83.4**	1,537.5	1,161.5	5.95	3.5	—	—
Hobbies and games	235	298	90.3	75.1**	1,083	927.5	4.61	3.1	½–18½	½–8½
Sports	128	117	49.2	29.5**	454.5	234	3.54	2.0	½–15	½–8
All Passive Entertainment	255	340	98.1	85.6**	1,727	2,152.5	6.7	6.3	—	—
Movies	76	185	29.2	46.6**	200.5	478.5	2.6	2.6	½–7	½–6
Reading	143	187	55.0	47.4	273	302	1.9	1.6	½–9	½–5½
Radio	84	241	32.3	60.7**	156.5	695.5	1.9	2.9	½–6½	½–8
Television	179	192	68.8	48.4**	781	630.5	5.4	3.3	½–16½	½–10
Other passive entertainment	121	78	46.5	19.6**	316	46	2.6	0.6	½–10	½–4
All Social Activities	117	261	45.0	65.7*	367	734.5	3.14	2.8	—	—
Visiting	85	249	32.7	62.7**	146.5	609	1.72	2.5	½–9	½–12
Dating	—	11	—	2.8**	—	8	—	0.7	—	—
Other social activities	77	100	29.6	25.2	220.5	117.5	2.86	1.2	½–10	½–8
Religious Activities	158	287	60.8	72.3*	350.5	691.5	2.22	2.4	1–13	½–11½
Grand Total of All Activities	260	397	100.0	100.0	4,565.0	5,746.5	17.5	15.0	—	—

clearance, integration in public housing, and employment of Negroes in well-paying positions. In building a favorable climate the city has also been fortunate to have an exceedingly co-operative radio and press. Interschool activities have also helped. A change in total community patterns would seem to be a prime requisite for successful school integration. Otherwise one would meet frustration upon frustration from the widely contrasting policies and attitudes in the various community institutions.

The public school is a reflecting mirror of our American democratic society. For this reason the writer is convinced that school administrators must consider in their planning both the in-school and out-of-school factors that affect integration.

Were there any similarities between the two groups of children studied which are significant for educational planning? The table shows that a large per cent of the children spent their leisure time reading. It does not show what they read. It also shows that more time was spent listening to the radio or in viewing television. This seems to be quite significant. Teachers have long been aware of the agencies in competition for children's interest in and time spent in reading. The facts revealed in this study should serve to re-emphasize the importance of helping children to get emotional satisfaction from reading. It also becomes increasingly evident that one of our responsibilities as educators is to teach discrimination in the selection by children of radio and television programs. Perhaps we should even try to harness interests awakened by television or radio in particular subjects and encourage the more widespread investigation of such interests through the use and study of all informational channels.

A study such as that made in 1950 in Wilmington has many implications for educational planning, particularly when attention is focused upon the needs, interests, and activities of children.

Technical Engineers or Human Engineers?

This brings us to the problem of the kind of educational program we need. There is a real danger that we may be frightened by the success of the Russians in turning out engineers and technical specialists with the result that we bend every educational effort in mathematical, scientific and technical directions. Such a move on our part would be a tragic error. It would cause us to meet the Russians on their ground rather than ours. It would further their values rather than ours. It would deprive us of strength on the fronts on which we excel—namely in traditions, in value systems, and in humane qualities.

The most urgent problems of the world are human problems. All over the world people are seeking to be more human, to be more respected, to take on more humane qualities, and to establish a more humane order of things. They struggle for a greater sense of belonging. Individual men are tired of being "an Island." They want to be "a piece of the Continent." Unless we in the West understand these aspirations of men in the East we shall not communicate with them. Accordingly, much as we may need more engineers our great need is for human engineers, for teachers, social workers, government leaders, professional men and women of all kinds who have humane qualities. A really great education would give us . . . specialists of humane attitudes, interests, understandings—men and women who "do not ask for whom the bell tolls" because they *know* that it tolls for them.

But it is in the very complexity of the problem of developing the great education we need that we shall find the superiority of the democratic approach. It is on this very front that we can win the "war of the classrooms." For our educational effort will be far greater than a mobilization of classrooms—it will be a mobilization of our total social fabric, of our total resources.—ERNEST O. MELBY in the *Educational Forum*.

A School Parades to the Polls

By SIGMUND A. FRIEDMAN

ALL CHILDREN LOVE A CIRCUS. They love it even if it is a two-ring circus—having Democratic donkeys and Republican elephants. There are all the exciting and spectacular elements which go into such a pageant. Are there not the parades of the rank and file closing in behind the candidates? Are there not the entreaties to come on in to see what is being offered? No one can be oblivious to the color of banners and posters bedecking the political arena. A presidential election campaign is a show in which the wares of candidates in a democracy are laid before the public to observe, to absorb, to analyze, and to accept or to reject. Such is the adventure of a political campaign in the United States of America.

With what can our children come away from such an experience? Will it be merely a taste of cotton candy in their mouths which, although appearing substantial, melts away when the teeth are sunk into it, or will it be an understanding of the working and meaning of the game—of democratic process? Let me trace one such experience. Our civics club became interested in getting out the vote. This is a noble goal, but just how to reach it has plagued countless political captains up and down the Main Streets of America. The children decided to conduct a contest, always a good box-office attraction. They would select the best letter written home to parents; they would also choose the best poster, which would be displayed in a neighborhood store.

"Wait a minute!" shouts one youngster—as you can see, democracy is sometimes a somewhat noisy process. "How do the grown-ups register and vote?" He wants to know the rituals that are followed in this sacred rite of democracy.

One of the young sophisticates interjects, "Well, there are districts where you vote. You sign your name in a book. You tell where you live so that you can vote in that district. Just like the children who go to our school can vote in our election."

"Well, let's have an election," adds another. "But first we have to register. Let's get committees to plan the registration."

"We'll need election officials, and signs and badges and. . . ."

His voice trails off as another adds, "Our teacher can help us."

Thus the machinery of democracy is oiled.

In just two days—from Tuesday to Thursday—with the help of the media of mass communication (the public-address system and rexographed fliers) 350 children have registered. However, all our 1,700 school children have discovered that something gigantic and important is happening at P.S. 165 Manhattan. Last but by no means least in advertising this event is a mammoth —or so it seemed to the hundreds of children in the schoolyard—noontime parade which reminded all the eligible citizens of their right to register.

EDITOR'S NOTE

The elections for this year are over. But there will be more in another year. If some teachers feel little if anything is accomplished in having pupils evaluate an election campaign, we offer this article as exhibit A. The primary purpose of the activity was to get out the vote. It was conceived during adult registration week in New York City, too late to utilize it for a school-council election pattern. The writer is a teacher in P.S. 165, New York City.

At the next civics club meeting the children discuss what to do further. One impatient soul cries, "Let's vote!"

Fortunately more mature voices implore, "The grown-ups have a campaign. They have speeches and rallies and. . . ."

"Let's choose sides," impatiently adds another. "We'll be Democrats and you'll be Republicans."

"What do the grown-ups do next?" adds a more methodical child.

Group consensus calls for two publicity committees to handle each party's publicity. Children select assignments on staffs. Chairmen are elected. Consequently, there are parallel groups which will make campaign buttons and posters. Other groups plan to make and distribute rexographed fliers. Some of the political leaders of the future join the speakers' committee. Both Democrats and Republicans are now represented by four separate groups each.

After exploring the possibilities, the youngsters decide to have neutrals, who will handle certain activities. They will publish an election edition of the school newspaper. There will also be a school public-address commission acting like a junior FCC in impartially apportioning equal time to the speakers' committee of each party. Furthermore, a school showcase display committee is formed in addition to the scrapbook committee.

Children throughout the school are invited to participate. The spotlight focuses on the activity in both arenas of the political campaigning. Some wheels enmesh smoothly. Others must be oiled again. The already busy schedule of a school, collecting money for the United Nations International Children's Emergency Fund through carnivals, is further taxed by an active campaign for the President and Vice-President of the United States of America.

The day of judgment arrives. The children vote. By an overwhelming majority one of the candidates was chosen as the children's choice for President.

The time for reflection comes. What happened? The civics club engages in evaluation.

"This was a wonderful show but what did we discover?" ventures one child.

"Well, we did find out about those long lines about which the grown-ups complain," muses another.

"We learned something about registration. The election officials asked questions. They wanted to know whether we lived in the district. They wanted to know whether we were citizens old enough to vote."

"Campaigning was a lot of fun. We made buttons and posters. Some children made speeches. Others published a newspaper. There were children who worked on a scrapbook. There were others who set up a display for the school showcase," adds a future Toynbee.

"Sure, it was exciting—voting and all. What did we learn about our form of government, about a democracy?" asks one of the more analytical youngsters. "Did we find out anything about the citizen's responsibilities in a democracy?"

Picking up this line of introspection, another adds, "We could have learned a lot more if we had our own candidates for school office. We should have had our own issues to improve our school."

As the children begin weaving a pattern for a future school election, the teacher who was privileged to stand beside these fine young citizens reflects. "These youngsters are really perceptive. They have done a splendid job in evaluating their roles in the mock election. What they say is true. I wonder, too, just what did they accomplish? Well, these youngsters had an opportunity to identify emotionally with the democratic process. The experience should be more meaningful in the near future when there is an election for school government. The children were ready for these experiences in relationship to their backgrounds at home, in their classes, and in their wider environments with democratic living and

democratic values. These children learned many things about their government at the different levels for which a readiness has been developed. In the building of a democracy, the foundation must be laid with the young guard in politics."

◆

A Plan for Review Work in Senior English

By WILLIAM F. STEINER and FERELDA PULVER

(Cliffside Park, New Jersey)

Review work in a high-school subject can be dull but the English department of Cliffside Park Senior High School has developed a plan for review which stimulates pupil interest and impels a high degree of pupil initiative and originality. Senior students like it, juniors look forward to it, and all of the pupils enjoy its culmination in a general assembly program.

The literature work in senior English is basically a summary of English writing from the period of the Anglo-Saxons to the present. Near the end of the year, for review and summary, each class is divided into four committees. The teacher chooses the leader of each group and the leaders select the other members of the committees by the old method of choosing sides, turn by turn, until each student is on a committee. Then, by lot, each leader picks the period of literature for which his group will be responsible. The assignment is that each group, entirely independently of the teacher, must prepare a full fifty-minute program to be presented to the other members of the class in the spirit of the literary and historical period for which they are responsible. They must include as many facets of the life of the times represented as possible. This includes politics, economy, social life, customs, music, literature, art, and whatever other characteristics they may deem of interest.

To do this work, each group makes a thorough study of the age. They use the school library, the city libraries, the museums, art galleries, and all agencies which can be of use. The most recent programs involved filmstrips, old victrola records, music of the old masters, costumes of the times, the pictures of the great English arts, marionettes, original playlets, the food of the periods, the social amenities, pertinent mechanical devices, and a multitude of other props and properties that only alert young minds would think of.

The programs, four for each class, were presented in the auditorium. Each program was required to have audience appeal, unity, and originality. All props and costumes were to be secured or constructed by the group, which, in itself, called for initiative and imagination. For instance, the wigs for the eighteenth century were converted white floor mops. Another requirement was that the projects were not to interfere either with the usual work of the English class or the other work of the school.

After all the class programs were given, the best ideas from each group were selected for an assembly program for the entire school. Then a central theme for the program was determined. Two rewriting sessions were held at the teacher's home; two evening rehearsals were conducted at the school; and the program was then given. The audience enjoyed it, the seventy-five who participated were sure they had produced the show of shows, and the underclassmen began to talk about next year when they would "put on" a show.

Legal Implications in School Field Trips

By
LEONARD A. SZUDY

ARE YOU PLANNING A FIELD TRIP or an excursion for your class or school group? If you are, then you should understand the legal obligations which you assume as sponsor of such an expedition. Student accidents resulting from field trips and excursions are not too common, but they do happen. The following questions arise: Who is liable for student accidents on school-sponsored trips? How have the courts ruled when confronted with such cases in the past? What precautions should be taken by the teacher sponsor and school administrator?

Liability in the Event of an Accident

In general, school districts are not liable for injuries to students. The only possible exceptions are in the states of New York, California, and Washington, where legislation has been enacted making school districts liable in certain circumstances. However, in general, the school district as a subdivision of the state is cloaked with immunity from liable suits. Such immunity is based upon the theory that no funds are provided to satisfy tort claims, and that if such tort claims were satisfied, the education of the young would be endangered or made impossible.

The question of whether the manager or owner of a plant, organization, or activity being visited can be held liable for injuries received by students on its premises presents a different problem. In general, if the student was on the premises as a licensee for the educational benefits to be derived, the agency or company is not liable in case of injury. However, if the student is an invitee, at the invitation of the company, then the company will be held liable if it fails to excercise reasonable care to protect visitors.

However, teacher sponsors of field trips and excursions can be held liable for any injury to students where negligence can be proved. This also applies to school administrators, bus drivers, and other school-district employees making the trip. It is a general principle of the law that anyone is responsible if his negligence is the cause of injuries to another.

Court Decisions of the Past

Field trips and excursions are an extension of the classroom. If proper care and precautions are taken, the teacher's liability is not any greater than it is in the classroom situation. However, the danger to students is much greater. The possibility of negligent action by teachers is great, due to the numerous activities engaged in by students.

Two of the most important duties which a teacher must accept as part of the teach-

EDITOR'S NOTE

As more and more schools schedule field trips and excursions to places of interest, the responsibility of the teachers for the safety and welfare of the pupils becomes increasingly important. Better by far for the teacher to be careful than to be sorry. Anyone who sponsors a field trip of students would do well to read this article by the principal of the Central High School in West Allis, Wisconsin.

ing profession are the supervision of students and the prevention of injury. Court cases in the past have resulted in the formulation of the following general rules by the courts: "It is the duty of a teacher in the public schools to exercise proper supervision over pupils in his charge and to exercise reasonable care to prevent injury to them. It is his duty to exercise care in the tasks assigned to pupils, and, where required by statute, it is the duty of teachers to observe the conduct of pupils to and from school, on the playground, and during any intermission."[1]

Teachers occupy a unique position in relation to their students as they are *in loco parentis* in all matters relating to care and guidance. This Latin phrase means "in the place of the parent." In educational matters, the parent surrenders parental powers to the teacher such as may be necessary to educate the child. Therefore, while a teacher does not enjoy any more freedom than any other person from suits and liability, this unique position of *in loco parentis* does place him beyond the limit of common responsibility in many cases. This has resulted in a degree of confusion as to his actual status, with the courts being called in to decide many issues.

The following general rules have been summarized from court decisions in the past involving teacher liability cases: "A teacher in the public schools is liable for injury to pupils in his charge caused by his negligence or failure to exercise reasonable care. Also a teacher is required to exercise reasonable care in case of an accident causing injury to one or more pupils in his charge, and he may be liable for injuries caused by his improper medical treatment of a pupil against his will, where the treatment was not immediately necessary and the teacher was not acting in an emergency. The mere fact that an accident happened in which a pupil was injured does not render the teacher liable, and a teacher or principal is not liable for injuries to a pupil where he was not negligent or where his negligence was not the proximate cause of the injury."[2]

Necessary Precautions for Field Trips

The courts are in general agreement that negligence results when one fails to act as an ordinarily prudent person would in the same or similar circumstances. It may be concluded that if a teacher exercises this degree of care in planning and conducting a field trip or an excursion, he will not be liable for any damages resulting from possible injury to a student while participating in this activity. This is the criterion which the courts have used in the past.

In planning your next field trip or excursion, stay out of court by following the list of precautions presented:

(1) *State codes.* Check your state codes in regard to field trips. Your state codes may allow authorized field trips as an instructional device, or they may delegate most of the responsibilities for instructional methods to the local board.

(2) *School-district policy.* Check your school-district policy regarding the use of field trips and excursions as instructional devices.

(3) *Approval from administrator.* Secure written permission from your school administrator permitting you to take a particular group on a field trip or an excursion.

(4) *Plan in advance.* Plan your field trip or excursion carefully far in advance of the scheduled date.

(5) *Permission forms.* Forms granting permission should be signed by the parent of the child authorizing the student's participation in a specific field trip or excursion for a specific purpose. This form should contain a statement releasing the

[1] Ludes, Francis J., and Gilbert, Harold J. *Corpus Juris Secundum*, LXXVIII (1952), p. 1197. Brooklyn: American Law Book Co.

[2] Ludes, Francis J., and Gilbert, Harold J., *op. cit.*, p. 1194.

school district, administrator, teachers, chaperones, and school district employees of any liability in the event of an accident. This form can prevent the parents from pressing charges in the event of an accident, but it does not deprive the child of his right to recover damages for an injury.

(6) *Chaperones for assistants.* Secure an adequate number of chaperones, depending upon the size of your group. Parents can usually help chaperone school groups with proper instruction. Wise and careful planning makes for good public relations when parents attend field trips and excursions as chaperones.

(7) *Licensee or invitee?* Check with the plant, agency, or organization to be visited in regard to liability in the event of an injury to a student or member of the group. It would be wise to visit the plant before the scheduled field trip to gain a background as to the precautions necessary. Make sure that you understand the status of your group. Will they be licensees or invitees of the firm? A teacher would be wise to select places where the group will be considered as invitees.

(8) *Instruction of group.* The teacher sponsor of a field trip or an excursion should spend a considerable amount of time in preparation. Students and chaperones should be alerted to the plans of the trip. They should be warned of any possible danger which they may encounter. Complete instructions should be given, and it would be best to have these duplicated so that each person making the trip would have a copy.

(9) *Transportation arrangements.* Transportation for the trip or excursion should be arranged by the school administration in conformity with the school-district policy of transportation.

(10) *Student accident insurance.* For additional protection, the teacher sponsor should check the school-district policy for student accident insurance and transportation insurance. School policies covering the accidents of students will help eliminate much of the responsibility in the event of an injury to a student.

(11) *Personal liability insurance policy.* If a teacher desires additional security, he may purchase a personal liability insurance policy. These policies are available at nominal rates from many reputable firms. Most policies agree to pay the judgment brought against a teacher and to defend him in any court action. Charges may be brought against a teacher whom the court finds not guilty of negligence. The teacher does not have to pay any judgment, but court costs are relatively expensive. Personal liability insurance policies will pay for such court costs.

(12) *The use of good judgment.* Finally, the most important precaution is one of a personal nature. The teacher should use good judgment, he should react to situations as would an ordinarily prudent person. The teacher should be able to anticipate any possibility of danger to his students, whether it be in the classroom or on a field trip.

Conclusion

Teachers have accepted field trips and excursions as a part of the school's program. The number of such trips is increasing each year. Therefore, teachers and school administrators should formulate policies regarding such trips to help protect themselves and their students. While no set of policies will actually guarantee immunity from a liability suit, they will help to reduce the probability of court action.

Lecture on "John Dryden as a Journalist" provides

An Experiment in Listening

By VIVIAN ZINKIN

FOR MANY YEARS English teachers have regarded listening as one of the major language arts, and for just as long they have been wrestling with methods that might develop this skill. So far no foolproof device has come up, nor has much material specifically designed for this purpose been made available. That there will ever be one method, or one approach, or one type of material devoted to this end is doubtful and of questionable desirability. Surely, whatever procedures have been tried and proved with even a modicum of success must be of interest to the high-school English teacher.

The lecture has long been absent from the high-school classroom and most teachers agree that teaching has been all the better for it. For this experiment, however, the lecture was brought back for a trial with a new purpose in mind, to use it not primarily as a means of imparting information but rather as a means of developing the ability to listen. Specific objectives were but two: (1) to develop, on the part of the student, the ability to listen for the central idea; and (2) to develop in the listener the ability to sift essential from nonessential information. The task of preparation itself was threefold: (*a*) to find a subject of interest and value to the listeners; (*b*) to prepare it so that the aural appeal would at least equal that of the content; (*c*) to present the material in such a fashion as to persuade the student to listen purposefully for as long as fifteen minutes.

Three classes, two senior and one junior, of average or above-average ability participated in the experiment. Three teachers tried out the method. The two who assisted me, Mrs. Douglas Rhodes and Miss Katherine Johnston, were of invaluable help not only because of their criticism of the lecture and their eager interest in the whole attempt but also because of their suggestions as to procedure and their evaluation of student work following the talk. Moreover, I should like to note that this attempt would not have been made if it were not for the insistence of Professor George Winchester Stone of New York University that Dryden could be made interesting to a high-school audience.

The lecture, entitled "John Dryden as a Journalist," was prefaced by such remarks as these:

I have prepared a short talk for you on what is perhaps an unfamiliar subject. I am going to ask you to see how much you can get from one listening. You will have to concentrate just as hard as you can. I shall speak slowly so that you can follow me. It would be wise for you to take notes so as to be able to consider the following three points:

EDITOR'S NOTE

One of the more important social skills to be developed through classroom work is listening. *This skill requires concentration and the ability to paraphrase what the speaker has been saying. It is impossible to engage in woolgathering, daydreaming, or reverie and at the same time develop the skill of listening. The experiment in listening described in this article took place in South Side High School, Newark, New Jersey, where the author is on the faculty.*

1. What is the central idea of this talk?

2. What specifically do you learn about the man who is the subject of the lecture? How does this information help to build up the central idea?

3. Do you like this method of learning? Why?

Have you any questions as to what you are to do? If not, then I shall begin the talk now.

THE LECTURE

From time to time many of you have asked why we study poetry. You've wanted to know what good it would do you. You've wanted to know what good it had done the poet or his time or posterity, for that matter. You have been intensely interested in the practical, the utilitarian value of poetry, if such a value should exist. It seems to me that you've been rather doubtful that it does.

Today, I'd like to speak to you about a poet much of whose writing was utilitarian in purpose and in effect. His name is John Dryden. His work is not often mentioned in the high school today, and even more rarely studied. Before I prepared this little talk for you, I examined all the high-school anthologies I could find, about forty of them, I should say, to see how much, if any, of the work of Dryden is included. Three-fourths of these books ignore the poet completely. The remaining fourth offers nine selections from his works. The shortest of these is a brief but rather nasty epitaph on his wife:

> Here lies my wife: here let her lie!
> Now she's at rest, and so am I.

As you can see, John Dryden is not considered average high-school fare. But I think you are going to be interested in him in spite of that. He's the man who can show you just how practically effective the writing of poetry can be.

We recognize today the role of the commentator on the contemporary scene. We are interested not only in the objective report of an event but also in what the experts think about it. The large sale of newspapers and magazines and the frequent newscasts on radio and television testify to the present keen interest in written and spoken journalism. We are attracted by such titles as "On the Spot News" and "You Are There." We all want, if only vicariously—that is, in the sense of second hand—to participate, to be there. And we are often envious of the person who *is* there.

John Dryden *was* there, and he made the most of it. Let me tell you just a little about the time in which he lived. We think our times are chaotic. We've just lived through a hot war and a cold war and now one that blows first hot, then cold. John Dryden, who was born in 1631, a little over three hundred years ago, and died in 1700, lived through a civil war on his home ground; and that was about as hot a war as anyone would care to live through. The greater part of the century was devoted to a struggle to determine where the power of the government should lie. At the beginning of the century, during the reign of James I, the King believed that all the power should lie with him. It was his by divine right. It had come to him straight from God. It was complete. It was absolute. He could do with it exactly as he liked. If he wished to act like the Queen of Hearts in *Alice in Wonderland* and cry, "Off with her head!" then off went her head. And no one might even breathe disapproval. That was his belief.

By the end of that century the whole concept of sovereignty—that is, where the power of government should lie—had changed. The idea of divine right had been replaced by that of constitutional monarchy. The king now held his position because the Parliament had asked him to. He was subject to the Parliament and to the law of the land. He was no longer a law unto himself.

Such a radical change in thinking and in governmental practice did not come about without bloodshed. In 1642 the Puritans, whom you know as among the earliest religious refugees to come to our shores, took up arms against a ruler who had persecuted them for their religious beliefs and who had permitted them so little voice in the government. England changed from an absolute monarchy to a religious state headed by Oliver Cromwell, leader of the Puritans. The king was beheaded, and hereditary rule was out in England for the next eighteen years.

And this is where John Dryden comes in. He was born into a family of the upper middle class with Puritan sympathies. It is said that young Dryden became secretary to a relative who at that time was enjoying the favor of Cromwell. Whether or not that is true, we know that in 1659 John Dryden embarked on his career as journalist with an elegy, a funeral song, in praise of Oliver Cromwell, who had recently died. He lauded the Puritan leader for his many accomplishments and for having brought peace and quiet to the land. This last was not really true.

In the very next year, 1660, the Puritans were out and monarchy was restored in the person of Charles II, who had fled to the continent when things got so hot for his father. His return, which began the period of English history called the Restoration—that is, the restoring of the monarchical system in England—was really at the request of a country that was tired of war and longed

for calm and security, just as we do today. And what did Dryden do? He wrote another poem of praise, but this time in honor of the returning monarch. Remember, just the year before he had written one in praise of a great rebel who had dethroned a king. You must be wondering just as so many others have wondered: Was the man a brazen turncoat? Didn't he have any principles? Was he interested only in his own skin?

If you were to glance at the two poems that follow in the next two years, both of them really in honor of the restoration of Charles II, you would find that Dryden was taking his position of journalist quite seriously, that he felt that the commentator on public events had a grave responsibility as a citizen to influence the government to rule wisely. For these poems do not merely praise those of lofty station and the good fortune that has befallen them. They serve rather as manuals of instruction. They say: This is the way to play the game if you want to play and win fairly. In other words, Dryden praises the King, not for what he has done but rather for what he should do in order to be worthy of that praise. It was a kind of buttering up to persuade the ruler to follow the road that would make him a good king, a ruler who would make peace and stability come back to the land. So far, Dryden as a journalist has been a commentator and an exhorter to do good works. He hasn't yet shown himself as a fighter. His hat is not yet in the ring. So far, he's merely a directional signal, pointing upward.

According to one student of Dryden, the richest and best body of his writing as a commentator is found in his prologues and epilogues. I have not mentioned to you that John Dryden was an important playwright in his time, although it was hardly the work in which he excelled. Prologues and epilogues are, as you must know, lines spoken before and after the performance of a play. Such speeches are not usually written for the theater today, but they were the custom during the time of the Restoration. Dryden wrote such lines not only for his own plays but also for the plays of other dramatists. His prologues and epilogues gave so much pleasure to the public that they became social events. People would go to the theater as much to hear one of these as to see the play advertised for the evening. There are ninety-five of such pieces in all, and they serve as a comment on forty years of the life that Dryden knew. During the ten-year period between 1680 and 1690 they dealt largely with the constitutional conflict of that decade. It was during this period also that Dryden changed his role from observer and booster on the side lines to active participant. We find that he's jumped into the middle of the ring, and he's in there fighting.

We'll have to return to the political scene for a moment to find out why Dryden turned into an active combatant. You remember that since 1660 Charles II had been king. Twenty years later he became ill and the question of who was to succeed him as king arose. Charles had no legitimate children. His brother James, who was next in line, was a Catholic and a large Protestant group opposed him. Their leader, the Earl of Shaftesbury, tried to force as successor to Charles the Duke of Monmouth, then reputed to be the illegitimate son of the monarch. Charles, who recovered, got wind of the two plots and banished both would-be kings from England. It was at this time that Dryden stepped into the fray, and armed with what? Not a sword, not a machine gun, not an atomic bomb! But for his time, and perhaps when future generations look back they will agree that for all time, it was a more potent weapon than any of these.

He armed himself with words, words in the form of a poem which became a winning weapon, but not because it annihilated the King's enemies. That might have brought them sympathizers and strengthened their cause. Dryden was a much better strategist than that. He left those enemies of the King who would destroy the peace that men had known so little but cherished so much very much alive but deflated. Gone were their pretensions, their hopes, and their following, for he had made them not those to be looked up to and followed but those to be mocked and scorned. He made them a laughing stock. One does not choose one's leader from among the ridiculous or the contemptible. The poet damned Shaftesbury, whom in the poem he calls "Achitophel," with such lines as these:

> Of these the false Achitophel was first;
> A name to all succeeding ages curst.

Please note that here Dryden isn't laughing; he's treating the traitor with scorn, as he does in the following verses:

> In friendship false, implacable in hate;
> Resolved to ruin or to rule the state.

Dryden was more skillful than men engaged in modern advertising. He knew how to attach a slogan and make it stick. Modern advertisers don't trust words alone; they set them to music and illustrate them with pictures. They want to be sure to sell. Dryden wanted to sell something, too. He wanted to sell an idea: that Shaftesbury was a traitor, that he was false, that he was a danger to his country. But he used only one medium, poetry, and he succeeded admirably.

If you think, by any chance, that I exaggerate to you the practical effectiveness of Dryden's verse, let me cite to you the judgments of two authorities.

Mark Van Doren, speaking of the value of Dryden's writings during the years between 1681 and 1687, remarks that "historians agree that his comments, if not always fair, still throw a brighter light upon those six years than do all other contemporary records combined."

The *Cambridge History of English Literature* goes even further with this statement: "Dryden's literary services had materially contributed to carry safely through some of the most dangerous stages of the conflict the cause of the legitimate succession, on which Charles had gone near to staking the stability of his throne." High praise, indeed, for a man whose only weapon was words.

I have tried to show you, in this brief talk, that poetry, apart from the magic it can conjure up, has also its utilitarian side. I've tried to present to you, superficially, to be sure, that part of the work of a great poet of the seventeenth century that was devoted to a practical end. I've tried to show you what it was that prompted him to write and what he hoped to accomplish by that writing. I have also tried to suggest its practical effect on history. I hope that a knowledge of the practical use of poetry will persuade you to an interest in its other powers.

For most of the students this was their first experience in concentrated and sustained listening. An examination of their work proved very interesting. Of sixty-seven listeners, thirty-three, just under one-half, were able to state the central idea of the talk. The group as a whole averaged four to five statements apiece commenting on Dryden's use of verse to influence public opinion. The practice papers showed a wide range of ability in note taking. One paper had only one detail recorded while three had as many as twenty. The whole group averaged between seven and eight details per person.

Most interesting, however, were the answers to the third question. Of the sixty-seven listeners, seven did not comment; thirty-two said that they did not enjoy this way of learning while twenty-eight said that they did. Those who enjoyed the method gave the following reasons:

"I like this method of learning because it gives you a change from the usual method of reading the subject. It is more interesting to listen to the topic and jot down the notes on the lesson than it is to read the whole thing through."

"I like to listen to someone else read once in a while."

"I like this kind of lesson because I like to listen."

"You can understand more clearly what someone says than what you yourself read."

"It gives you a little variety and makes you more interested. Easier than reading."

"I like it because it is more interesting to gain knowledge by listening once in a while than by reading. The reading is dry. There's more life when it is narrated."

The reasons for disliking the method roughly resolved themselves into the following:

"I can get more out of reading the same matter than if it is read to me."

"Anything I have to learn I must have in front of me."

"I don't like this way of learning because I've never had it before."

"It gets dull."

"I don't like this form of lesson because I tend to fall asleep and there is no way of referring back to catch up on what I missed."

The majority of those unfavorably disposed to the method complained of its difficulty.

"It's hard to write and listen at the same time."

"It seems to be one of the hardest ways of learning I know. It requires the ability to listen carefully and write down notes without losing the meaning of the talk."

"I don't like this way of learning because you really have to concentrate on it."

"I am never sure of just what information I should put down."

"I am not used to having so much said in this small time."

"It takes a good deal of thought to get the gist of what is trying to be brought out."

Many of the students, even a large number of those who did not particularly en-

joy the lesson, found merit in the method. They commented:

"It makes a person think and express his thought in notes, then transfer these notes into sentences."

"I believe that the ear can be trained to split the important facts from the unimportant."

"This type of lesson not only gives us practice in listening but it also gives us information."

"It helps to make you a good listener by remembering what you were listening to and writing it down in answer form to certain questions."

"It teaches students to listen more carefully and pay more attention. If students get practice in this now, later they will know how to listen, what to listen to, and what ideas to remember."

"You learn how to select the important parts and leave out those that are not so important. If this type of work is done over and over again, it will become easy."

"I think a person knows he must listen attentively and think quickly to learn anything, and therefore he learns more."

"I think it would make a fine way of teaching. It would give us a chance to learn to listen attentively and really get something out of what we hear. So few people are good, attentive listeners today. It may raise difficulties with teachers who wouldn't want to prepare this type of work for the class."

The last group of remarks are of particular interest because they show that these students realize (1) that listening is an individual responsibility; (2) that the ability to concentrate results only after careful training and continued practice; (3) that the listener must learn to distinguish between the important and the unimportant; and (4) that listening is an important way of learning.

Most encouraging were both spoken and written comments to the effect that high-school students enjoy listening and want to learn to listen better. This experiment has proved that they will listen with pleasure and profit to material frequently excluded as too bookish or too far removed from adolescent experience. It suggests that the doors of literature can be flung open very wide indeed and that from the rich store of thought there is little limit to what may be brought back for the pleasurable and gainful listening of the high-school student provided that the presentation is sensitively adapted to the audience.

◆

No Education without Morality

In true education the factor of religion and morality cannot be absent, even with our vaunted theory of the separation of church and state. The Pilgrim statement of 1623 on the Johnston gate at Harvard reads: "One of the next things we longed for was to advance learning and perpetuate it to posterity, dreading to leave an illiterate ministry to the churches." The laymen are included in the statement over the door of Earl Hall at Columbia: "Erected to the student that religion and learning may go hand in hand and character grow with knowledge." An inscription on a chair in the American University in Washington has a similar content: "Unite the pair so long disjoined, knowledge and vital piety."

College presidents, superintendents, principals, supervisors, teachers, and school boards may get discouraged and may feel skeptical of methods and accomplishments and the worth of the whole effort, but there are still thousands of laymen who believe in what is being attempted and are grateful to those making the attempt, even though they do not say so.

Yes, education has had, and has now, both its skeptics and its converts. But what about the Powers model—beautiful, intelligent, friendly, and with fresh enthusiasm for her work. I can't get her out of my mind when I think of the power of knowledge!—O. H. FOLGER in *North Carolina Education.*

If I Were a Principal—
My First Speech to the Faculty

By
DAVID B. WARD

I ONCE TOOK A COURSE from a man who said uniquely that public school supervision is "creative." I had never heard it put quite that way before, but the more I consider the statement the more I believe it. There is definitely an art to administering a school, and only a few officials ever reach the relative status of a Rembrandt. We have more than a fair share of Salvador Dalis in this business—not that he is not an artist, for he very definitely is, in his own inimitable, sensational way—but supervision requires more than the artist's flourish: It needs hard work. It needs co-operation from each person it affects. For this reason, and several others, I shall always welcome suggestions, criticism, and just plain help in any form. I've seen too many "drop deads!" and "turn blues!" in suggestion boxes to favor this technique, however. If it were not for the fact that it would leave holes in the woodwork, I should prefer that the door to my office be removed so that ready access might be illustrated in a practical manner. Please feel free to visit me at any time for any reason no matter how insignificant it might seem.

In my case *un*familiarity might breed contempt. Because I am not thoroughly acquainted with your policies and practices here, I shall make many mistakes which you who are familiar with the situation would never think of. For this reason you must have patience with me—patience tempered with understanding. Again I sincerely solicit co-operation from those of you who have grown with this school, and the least I can expect is criticism from the rest of you. I hope it will be constructive.

My administration will not be of the "rule by rumor" variety. A well-cultivated grapevine is often more destructive than a neglected blackberry bush, and the fruit of each is sour before it turns sweet. I'm trying to say that I shall never act on the basis of rumor alone, not that I "just won't listen" to one. In my mind, well-documented evidence is vitally necessary to decision, and rumor must never replace this evidence.

Just as I will never operate on the inadequate basis of rumor, neither will I be a dictator—not even a benevolent one. Democracy is on trial before the world today. One of its most obvious display cases is our public school system. There it must be always in evidence. Democratic method is not, I know, alien to this school. I plan to continue with whatever committee system you have had in the past, and I should like to make an appointment at this time. I appoint your new principal as an ex-officio member of the social committee, and by virtue of this high office he suggests a party at his house as soon as he finds one.

EDITOR'S NOTE

This is a hypothetical introductory address by a new principal to an expectant but wary faculty. It is the kind of thing that precedes rather than grows out of an experience. Somehow, however, it seems to have a genuine ring to it, and we liked it. The author writes in his accompanying letter that "perhaps it tries to say too much too prosily." But we leave that to you. He is teacher-librarian at the Union High School, Gervais, Oregon.

There is something invigorating about grilling a hot dog over a can of sterno.

If you have any discipline problems here, I shall be surprised, but not overcome. Few schools avoid this type of problem. You people are professionally trained adults and able to handle swiftly and efficiently most pupil irregularities. Most of you are much more skillful and experienced in handling this sort of thing than I. So I ask you in all sincerity to send Joe to the principal's office only as a last resort. If, however, he does arrive, I won't let you down. Also, there must be no friction between faculty members in front of their students. If I'm wrong I want to know it. If you are, or I think you are, you'll know it—in time *and in private*. No one will be deprived of his version, and that includes Joe. Your judgment will always be respected—until further notice—also *in private*.

This state's compulsory ten-day sick-leave law is a huge step in the right direction. However, it will not be charged when I get lonesome for the classroom and tell you to go visit your sick grandmother some afternoon during the fishing season. Sorry, but I reserve the pheasants for myself. Seriously, I will be as generous as possible with time, and if you're really sick, for heaven's sake stay in bed. Even headaches are contagious when dragged into a classroom.

I am not an indiscriminate visitor. I hope to be invited into your classrooms as often as you wish, but as a participator, not as an audience. I will drop in now and again not to "check up" but to pick up new friends and techniques of teaching. I may be back in my own classroom sooner than I think, and I want to be prepared. I can still cut a mean study plan, if I do say so myself.

No matter how successful a school is, its public relations department can always be improved—or extended—or renovated. The function of a public relations program is not to keep the public out of your hair; it's to get them to use the same kind of shampoo. Most people are interested in schools because they deposit their children there most of the time. When they come for a withdrawal, they want not only the original investment but also interest in the form of accomplishment, poise, pride, and the other assorted virtues of education. We can produce if given the tools. We can get the tools only if we educate the public to the point of their giving without our asking. It's not easy because "anyone can be a schoolteacher," or words to that effect. Well I can fly a jet airplane, too, but don't ask me to land it. The public is not, as Alexander Hamilton once so undiplomatically put it, a beast. But its ignorance is often surpassed only by its gullibility. I'll have more to say about parent education later. It's a lengthy but highly important subject.

An old-timer of the hills of East Tennessee, who was appearing as a witness in a lawsuit, was being questioned as to his educational qualifications by the plaintiff's lawyer.

"Can you write?" asked the lawyer.

"Nope."

"Can you read?"

"Wa'al, I kin read figgers pretty well, but I don't do so good with writin'."

"How is that?"

"Wa'al, take these here signs along the road when I want t' go somwhers: I kin read how fur, but not whur to."

Educators are different: they often can read the handwriting on the wall but never seem to know just how far to go.

I know when to go and I will now. Thank you.

❖

The Impact of Social and Economic Changes on Secondary Education

By
DONALD A. LETON *and* NOLAN C. KEARNEY

DURING THE WAR YEARS, the man-power demands for the armed forces and for defense production were high. Many students left high school before graduation to enter service or to take the defense jobs which were readily available. The social and economic values of education were not so apparent to teen-agers and to their parents then. Moreover, educators were then at a loss to relate the high-school curriculum to the life situations and the job situations which were faced by graduates and dropouts alike.

Since the war, nothing has been more dramatic in bringing to our attention the social and economic values of education than the sincere purposes and mature attitudes which returning veterans brought to the educational scene after the war. The acute man-power needs of a defense economy no longer existed in their former proportions. However, we were faced by a much greater educational challenge from expanding peacetime industries. Our economy became much more complex, industries became highly technical, and the culture began making new demands on education. We were faced with the problem of providing suitable educational and vocational guidance for more youth, and for more jobs, in a more complex society. We were also faced with the fact that education did not quickly alter its curriculums in anticipation of social change, but rather continued to follow in its own traditions.

In order to appreciate the influence of economic and social changes, it may be helpful to review some of the curriculum modifications of the past. In the early history of education in this country, the industrial revolution helped to establish the value of educational and vocational training. However, we were still an agrarian nation, and there was much need for unskilled labor both in shops and on the farms. Thus, there was no difficulty in absorbing the uneducated in rural or low-level occupations. In more recent years, agriculture has become quite technical so that the value of vocational training in agriculture at the high-school and college levels has become well recognized. The public schools can no longer "squeeze out" the inept student and expect that he will be absorbed in a low-level-skill occupation. This was an important economic change. At the same time, there was social change when society established free public education through high school for all children. We are now in the process of modifying the curriculum for all levels of ability in order to keep pace with this new democratic

EDITOR'S NOTE

Though we like sometimes to think of the "good old days," we can no more go back to the schools of 1920 than we can accept the Model T Ford as a new-model automobile. Our world is a 1957 model mainly because of the tremendous industrial, economic, and social changes that have taken place. The authors of this article recount briefly some of the educational changes that have followed socioeconomic change. They are, respectively, professor of education, University of California at Los Angeles, and assistant superintendent of public schools, St. Paul, Minnesota.

idea. Some of these modifications have been little more than watered-down versions of the old established academic program. It has not been possible to add the shops and equipment for new-type vocational and prevocational education. Up to the present time, adequate guidance programs and curriculums have not been provided for students with lower levels of mental ability, and for their parents.

It has been said that during the Roaring Twenties students were inclined to choose their colleges for the opportunities they provided for social experiences but that during the depression years the economic value of education was again paramount. Whether or not these statements are true, the fact remains that many youth remained in school during the depression because they were unable to obtain jobs. At the present time, a great many high-school and college students are employed in part-time jobs that preclude participation in the extracurricular programs designed for their social development. The former concept that "school is the place to have fun" has now often been nudged over and supplemented by appreciation of the economic and social values of education.

The four-year curriculum of the academic high school was formerly designed for college preparation. Students were "trained" for entrance to liberal arts colleges, technical institutes, and teacher-training institutions. Perhaps the most important motivation for changing the secondary curriculum came with the gradual realization that the majority of high-school students would not enter college. Whether justified or not, there grew up a concomitant belief that secondary graduates were poorly prepared with the skills and knowledge necessary on the competitive job market.

In order to offset the emphasis on college preparatory training, there has been a trend toward "general education." The experimental development of "common learnings," "core curriculum," and "life adjustment" programs illustrates this trend. These curriculums represent an effort to provide all high-school students with the knowledge, skills, and understandings that are necessary for individual, social, and occupational adjustment. The theory behind them is that there are certain things to learn which are important to all life situations. To the extent that this is true, we must accept the purposes of these curriculums. These programs, however, should be submitted to critical test before it is assumed that they attain their objectives. Ever since the days of Herbert Spencer, educators have been concerned with his question as to what knowledge is of most worth.

The schools are now under criticism that they have not met the specific vocational needs of students. At the same time, the importance of college preparatory programs has again been re-emphasized by the demands in professional fields such as teaching, engineering, nursing, and medicine. Technical training has assumed greater importance because of its role in modern industry. Science and industry are asserting more influence in formulating the curriculum and the guidance programs.

The vocational high schools and the vocational curriculums in high schools are generally designed for youth who are directly entering the skilled trades, semitechnical occupations, or office jobs. This vocational specialization has come about partly because the academic high school is not staffed or equipped to offer comprehensive training in a variety of occupations. There is evidence that a change may now be occurring. A recent modification to meet the requests for more realistic job training is the part-time school-work programs which give training in clerical, sales, and factory employment. The responsibility for this training is not solely assigned to the school but is shared by employers and educators alike. Employers also share in the job of guidance. This involvement makes it pos-

sible for the employer to come to know the student trainee's aptitudes, interests, abilities, and disabilities. In such programs, educators and employers share the credit when training is successful and show tolerance when students exhibit shortcomings and limitations. One of the important by-products of all of this has been improved relationships among schools, business, and industry.

The college preparatory programs of secondary schools became crystallized and inflexible over the years. Those who plan pupils' programs today are trying to overcome the old rigidities and to provide pupils with enlarged opportunities to choose from diversified programs. Far too frequently, counselors must still rely almost entirely on a manipulation of the students' time among traditional academic classes and on the personal flexibility of teachers in cases where students need special curricular and guidance assistance. The effectiveness of any school guidance program is limited by the curriculum. The evaluation of a guidance program must take these limitations into account.

Whether a student is in a college preparatory, technical, vocational, or part-time school-work program, the importance of social competence and emotional balance cannot be neglected. Whether pupils attain these objectives should be submitted to critical experiment. As our society grows more complex, there is an unprecedented demand for knowledge and skills in human relationships. Educators must take heed of these demands as they undertake curriculum change. The social and economic values of education cannot afford to be competitive in any scheme of education.

Better curriculums and better guidance are needed if the schools are to adjust to new social and economic conditions. The need for improvement is more obvious than ever since the great war. There is need for renewed attention to the common information, skills, and attitudes required by all people in a technical, democratic world. There is need for the development of vocational and prevocational skills. There is also need for broad differentiation to take care of the wide differences in ability and interest.

❖

Crisis in Learning

There is a crisis in learning, due to the disproportion between man's limited capacity to learn and the extraordinary expansion in available knowledge. Neither personally nor socially is it satisfactory to meet this crisis by condemning individuals to specialization in a narrow discipline, to the exclusion of true understanding in other fields of knowledge. Such a plan both impoverishes the individual and undermines the foundations of social order.

To develop free men in a healthy society is the task of a truly liberal education dedicated to the growth of wide yet profound understanding. The required wisdom cannot be achieved by a prodigious effort to keep up with the onrolling tide of new knowledge nor yet by a frantic attempt to grasp the accumulated treasures of the past. The only sure way appears to be the one method whereby man's intellect has always brought order and simplicity out of the confusing multiplicities of experience, namely, the process of concept-formation.

Thus the theory of knowledge in its several areas provides a means for developing key concepts which by indicating the essential character of whole fields of knowledge can insure the necessary general understanding with relatively limited knowledge of specific details. The use of such key ideas in the organization and teaching of subject matter may effect important economies in learning effort, greatly increase the depth of comprehension, and facilitate further independent exploration in any discipline.

These are the conditions for the making of well-educated persons and they are one answer, from the philosophy of education, to the crisis in learning.—PHILIP H. PHENIX in the *Teachers College Record*.

Findings

A QUESTION OF ADEQUACY: The New York *Times* for January 30 carried an item in which the President of Smith College is reported to have questioned the adequacy of the present type of College Board exams. He is doubtful as to the effectiveness of these objective tests as a measuring stick for predicting success in college. He feels that the value is limited because the objective test, mechanically scored, does not permit latitude in the matter of organization of material, understanding of subject matter, and ability to express knowledge through discussion. Dr. Wright points out that this type of examination is satisfactory for what he calls "certain kinds of minds" but deplores the fact that it works to a disadvantage for others who might profit as much or more from a college education.

ENCOURAGEMENT FOR TEACHERS OF SCIENCE AND MATH: The New York *World Telegram* of a recent date reports that along with fifteen other colleges Harvard University is offering a program, to extend over a year, designed to increase the background of science and math teachers, to give them a broader base on which to work in their high-school classes, when they return, and to familiarize them with scientific knowledge in courses outside the scope of those studied in their basic college training. It is a wonderful opportunity and offers a chance to do additional study with all expenses paid.

MORE ABOUT READING: According to *Midland Schools* (January, 1957), the official organ of the Iowa State Education Association, one of the important trends in the secondary education field is the recognition by teachers that there is a place for the teaching of reading at that level. The article states the situation very clearly when it says: ". . . High-school teachers recognize that reading is a building twelve stories high." With this recognition, plans are formulated to place stress on both developmental and remedial aspects of the reading program.

This same source focuses attention on the fact that there is a distinction between the retarded and the poor reader. It defines each of these and shows that the terms are not synonymous. The retarded reader is obviously one who does not read up to his potential, whereas the poor reader achieves at a low level when compared with the average of his age group or class. It is pointed out in the article that the retarded reader is often labeled as a slow learner.

A PERENNIAL PROBLEM INTENSIFIED: The problem of how many will get into college has reached monstrous proportions. It looms up as one of the most critical problems faced by today's teen-agers. And there's no lessening of its intensity. The January 14, 1957, *Newsweek* recorded the facts and figures in a special report. These statistics are staggering. For example, to meet competition of those interested in the big-name schools, a candidate must score about 600 on the College Boards. Even then, he may not rate his first choice.

Nor are scores on the College Boards the only criteria for acceptance. More and more colleges across the country are demanding not just the cream of the crop, or as *Newsweek* puts it, not even just the "crème de la crème," but want "pure butterfat." The implications for high-school students are evident. The implications for our colleges are even more evident. The very foundations of American higher education are being threatened in terms of the danger of falling victim to a mediocrity and lowering of standards.

JANE E. CORNISH

DECENCY OR DELINQUENCY?

By DONALD I. WOOD

"Teen-age Gangs at War," "Juvenile Sex Ring Uncovered," "High School Youth in Dope Investigation." Newspaper headlines of this type blare their accounts of arson, rape, armed robbery, and even murder in virtually every American community. Casual perusal of any newsstand reveals literally dozens of publications for sale purporting to contain exposés of the sensational doings of our young people. A recent check of the Sunday editions of three large city newspapers disclosed twenty-one feature articles dealing more or less with the topic, "What is the answer to juvenile delinquency?" The so-called "slick" magazines are running single articles and series of articles written by "experts" and others in which views, theories, and pronouncements are expounded regarding the "blight on today's youth." Radio and television have taken the cue from the periodicals. Hardly a day goes by without the listener's or viewer's being beset with pseudo dramas about "misguided youth" and their terrible escapades. The juvenile delinquency theme must have a high sales quotient, for the various public information media are exploiting it to the utmost.

As a result of this exploitation, "teen-age" has become a "dirty" term to an unusually large segment of the general public. They envision the typical young man as being a leather-jacketed, open-shirted, tight-trousered monster with a "wild dog" hair-do. They see his pockets laden with switch-blade knives, blackjacks, perhaps a zip gun, and brass knuckles. He is pictured as a brawling, marauding hoodlum terrorizing otherwise peaceful neighborhoods of America's cities. Young girls get off little better. Dressed in dungarees, a boy's shirt, leather jacket, they are described as being too heavily made up, too loud, too brash, and even morally wanton. It is thought that both sexes are addicted to rock 'n' roll, speeding automobiles, unintelligible language, Elvis Presley, unseemly literature, and not infrequently alcohol, if not narcotics.

Undoubtedly every day there *are* young people doing things of which no one can be proud. It cannot be denied that some of our youth become involved in almost every kind of bizarre misbehavior. Yet it is regrettable that the entire group is branded with moral laxity, unscrupulous behavior, and degeneracy because of the actions of a few.

The present critical attitude toward young people has brought down upon us a rash of "experts" on the behavior of youth. It seems that almost anyone is qualified as "expert" in this field: law-enforcement officers, disgruntled parents, doctors, lawyers, shopkeepers, officers of civic clubs, or any other person who has lived past his twentieth year. Too many people are making too many speeches, writing too many

---

EDITOR'S NOTE

According to reliable estimates, less that 5 per cent of the total adolescent population can be classified as behavior problems. Only a minority of the behavior problems can be classified as juvenile delinquents. In other words, the great majority of boys and girls are not juvenile delinquents. The point of view of the author is that all youngsters need guidance, trust, and understanding, but the one thing they need least is unreasoned and unreasonable criticism. He is associate in safety education of the National Commission on Safety Education, National Education Association.

Findings

A QUESTION OF ADEQUACY: The New York *Times* for January 30 carried an item in which the President of Smith College is reported to have questioned the adequacy of the present type of College Board exams. He is doubtful as to the effectiveness of these objective tests as a measuring stick for predicting success in college. He feels that the value is limited because the objective test, mechanically scored, does not permit latitude in the matter of organization of material, understanding of subject matter, and ability to express knowledge through discussion. Dr. Wright points out that this type of examination is satisfactory for what he calls "certain kinds of minds" but deplores the fact that it works to a disadvantage for others who might profit as much or more from a college education.

ENCOURAGEMENT FOR TEACHERS OF SCIENCE AND MATH: The New York *World Telegram* of a recent date reports that along with fifteen other colleges Harvard University is offering a program, to extend over a year, designed to increase the background of science and math teachers, to give them a broader base on which to work in their high-school classes, when they return, and to familiarize them with scientific knowledge in courses outside the scope of those studied in their basic college training. It is a wonderful opportunity and offers a chance to do additional study with all expenses paid.

MORE ABOUT READING: According to *Midland Schools* (January, 1957), the official organ of the Iowa State Education Association, one of the important trends in the secondary education field is the recognition by teachers that there is a place for the teaching of reading at that level. The article states the situation very clearly when it says: ". . . High-school teachers recognize that reading is a building twelve stories high." With this recognition, plans are formulated to place stress on both developmental and remedial aspects of the reading program.

This same source focuses attention on the fact that there is a distinction between the retarded and the poor reader. It defines each of these and shows that the terms are not synonymous. The retarded reader is obviously one who does not read up to his potential, whereas the poor reader achieves at a low level when compared with the average of his age group or class. It is pointed out in the article that the retarded reader is often labeled as a slow learner.

A PERENNIAL PROBLEM INTENSIFIED: The problem of how many will get into college has reached monstrous proportions. It looms up as one of the most critical problems faced by today's teen-agers. And there's no lessening of its intensity. The January 14, 1957, *Newsweek* recorded the facts and figures in a special report. These statistics are staggering. For example, to meet competition of those interested in the big-name schools, a candidate must score about 600 on the College Boards. Even then, he may not rate his first choice.

Nor are scores on the College Boards the only criteria for acceptance. More and more colleges across the country are demanding not just the cream of the crop, or as *Newsweek* puts it, not even just the "crème de la crème," but want "pure butterfat." The implications for high-school students are evident. The implications for our colleges are even more evident. The very foundations of American higher education are being threatened in terms of the danger of falling victim to a mediocrity and lowering of standards.

JANE E. CORNISH

DECENCY OR DELINQUENCY?

By DONALD I. WOOD

"TEEN-AGE GANGS AT WAR," "Juvenile Sex Ring Uncovered," "High School Youth in Dope Investigation." Newspaper headlines of this type blare their accounts of arson, rape, armed robbery, and even murder in virtually every American community. Casual perusal of any newsstand reveals literally dozens of publications for sale purporting to contain exposés of the sensational doings of our young people. A recent check of the Sunday editions of three large city newspapers disclosed twenty-one feature articles dealing more or less with the topic, "What is the answer to juvenile delinquency?" The so-called "slick" magazines are running single articles and series of articles written by "experts" and others in which views, theories, and pronouncements are expounded regarding the "blight on today's youth." Radio and television have taken the cue from the periodicals. Hardly a day goes by without the listener's or viewer's being beset with pseudo dramas about "misguided youth" and their terrible escapades. The juvenile delinquency theme must have a high sales quotient, for the various public information media are exploiting it to the utmost.

As a result of this exploitation, "teen-age" has become a "dirty" term to an unusually large segment of the general public. They envision the typical young man as being a leather-jacketed, open-shirted, tight-trousered monster with a "wild dog" hair-do. They see his pockets laden with switch-blade knives, blackjacks, perhaps a zip gun, and brass knuckles. He is pictured as a brawling, marauding hoodlum terrorizing otherwise peaceful neighborhoods of America's cities. Young girls get off little better. Dressed in dungarees, a boy's shirt, leather jacket, they are described as being too heavily made up, too loud, too brash, and even morally wanton. It is thought that both sexes are addicted to rock 'n' roll, speeding automobiles, unintelligible language, Elvis Presley, unseemly literature, and not infrequently alcohol, if not narcotics.

Undoubtedly every day there *are* young people doing things of which no one can be proud. It cannot be denied that some of our youth become involved in almost every kind of bizarre misbehavior. Yet it is regrettable that the entire group is branded with moral laxity, unscrupulous behavior, and degeneracy because of the actions of a few.

The present critical attitude toward young people has brought down upon us a rash of "experts" on the behavior of youth. It seems that almost anyone is qualified as "expert" in this field: law-enforcement officers, disgruntled parents, doctors, lawyers, shopkeepers, officers of civic clubs, or any other person who has lived past his twentieth year. Too many people are making too many speeches, writing too many

---

EDITOR'S NOTE

According to reliable estimates, less that 5 per cent of the total adolescent population can be classified as behavior problems. Only a minority of the behavior problems can be classified as juvenile delinquents. In other words, the great majority of boys and girls are not juvenile delinquents. The point of view of the author is that all youngsters need guidance, trust, and understanding, but the one thing they need least is unreasoned and unreasonable criticism. He is associate in safety education of the National Commission on Safety Education, National Education Association.

---

articles, and casting too many radio and television shows about what is wrong with our young people. Only rarely does one find evidence of constructive criticism or of projected solutions to the ills that are supposed to exist. Those making the loudest and most vehement denouncements of youth offer mainly criticism, seldom positive action to remedy a situation. Too often broad, sweeping generalizations are being made upon the bases of isolated instances and insufficient information. Writers and speakers very frequently make irresponsible and absurd conjectures, perhaps reminiscent of their own youth, while they "view with growing concern" the current condition of youth.

In recent years possibly thousands of "committees on juvenile delinquency" have been formed by various groups throughout the United States. In some cases all the committees have done is confer. In others, thousands of man-hours and thousands of dollars have been spent in an effort to do something constructive. Some have been at least partially successful; others have been eminently unsuccessful. Surveys have been made, statistics compiled, case histories gathered, record files inaugurated. In most cases usual committee procedures are followed to the letter. Various solutions have been projected and tried: curfews, more stringent law enforcement, new legislation, harsher penalties, and many other negative approaches. More positive approaches have been youth canteens, clubs, organized athletic activities, contests and competitive activities, and literally hundreds of other efforts. However, despite all these efforts, if we are to believe the critics of youth, the situation has grown steadily worse.

Undoubtedly in many communities committees have done remarkably good work by decreasing the incidence of delinquency among young people. It is astonishing, however, that numbers of committees function without so much as seeking the views of young people, much less asking their advice or involving them in the work of the group. Often a project or an activity is conceived and put into operation without a single boy or girl contributing to the planning. Somehow it is expected that whatever a committee decides will meet with the approval of youngsters. Obviously, youthful approval is very seldom forthcoming for the reason that they were not involved in planning. The committee then sees this rebuff as additional evidence of the undependable nature of today's youth. Actually, prepackaged programs have little or no appeal to any age group, much less to high-school boys and girls. As a result boys and girls have come to "view with concern" the activities of many of their elders' committees and the work they do.

What proof is there that American youth of today are any worse than those of fifty years ago? Statistics in this field are not complete nor are they entirely reliable. It may be that because of the expanded means of mass information and the emphasis upon this particular aspect of American life we are made more aware of what is taking place. Certainly only a few decades ago there was a greater tendency to shield young people and their wrongdoings than at present. Only rather recently have juvenile cases become a permanent part of court records. Also, one must take into account the rapidly increasing population growth of the country. Obviously, the number of youthful offenses will increase in some proportionate amount. Increased efficiency of our law-enforcement agencies also accounts for the apparent rise of juvenile offenses. This simply indicates, however, that more young people are being caught, not that there are more offenses than before. One must also consider the fact that our laws have changed. Laws of today and fifty years ago are not comparable. Many of today's violations involve theft of an automobile, which was virtually unheard of fifty years ago. Taking these things into account, it seems somewhat

doubtful whether we really know how much the crime rate among juveniles has increased. It would certainly seem wise to use current statistics with considerable caution.

If we are to be skeptical of the idea that children and youth are getting much worse, what is a more reasonable concept? In the confusion of accusations and diatribes against youth, many of their fine and worthwhile accomplishments have been ignored or overlooked. Singly and in groups the vast majority of America's boys and girls are doing much that is good and beneficial to society in general. One needs only the opportunity and privilege of working with our young people, of observing their activities, of sharing their thoughts, and of hearing their ambitions to know that they are most things their critics say they are not. It is not exaggeration to say that the current generation of youth is intelligent, scrupulous, serious, dependable, and true. They are possessed with an extraordinarily high sense of moral values. They are reverent and discerning in spiritual matters. Even though immature, with help and guidance their judgment is usually balanced and well developed.

As with older persons, they generally react unfavorably to prohibitions or regulations for which they are unable to see reason or which they do not understand. They are slow to give approval and support to activities which have been adult planned and are adult dominated. Their interest and enthusiasm seem boundless, however, when they are working on activities and projects which are centered in their basic needs and which they help plan.

It stands to reason that what young people do is strongly influenced by the example of their elders. All too often youthful misbehavior is but a reflection of what they see an older person do. They are perplexed by adult reasoning that they should do as adults say, not as adults do. It is rather hard for a youngster to see that it is wrong to gain unpaid admission to a movie when a respected adult openly boasts of misrepresenting his income-tax return. It is likewise difficult to see why it is all right for a parent to evade a parking ticket or exceed the speed limit when the boy or girl is expected to obey the letter of the law. Is it wrong to play hooky from school when father and mother take unwarranted sick leave from their employment to shop or go fishing? Is it harmful to lie occasionally when parents use that method to avoid unwanted visitors or to escape bill collectors? How much can we expect of our young people? How much of what they are criticized for is different from what their adult counterparts are guilty of doing?

The time seems long overdue for our adult society to pursue some serious thinking about their responsibility to our younger generation. Obviously, all of us want better things for our children than we enjoyed. Money, social prestige, educational opportunity will provide some of those things. But we want more than these things. We want our children to be better people—honest, dependable, forthright, unswervingly moral, spiritual—and to possess all of the other desirable human qualities. The standards of social behavior and the ethical codes of twenty years ago are obsolete today. Throughout the ages there has generally been a recognition of the existence of right and wrong. This recognition forms the bases upon which acceptable social behavior is built; however, the framework is constantly changing with the advancement of our society. This is as it should be, but adults must, if younger generations are to profit, continuously adjust to changing times and conditions. From adjustment should emerge revised standards of behavior upon which judgment is based and advancement assessed. Adult behavior must be considerably improved before we can expect significant change among our youth.

The great majority of boys and girls are not juvenile delinquents, but all youngsters

need guidance, trust, and understanding. The one thing they need least is unreasoned criticism. Through self-examination and improvement of adult behavior, and through guidance to help find acceptable purposes and ideals, patterns of conduct among boys and girls can be strengthened and improved. The potential which youth possess for constructive action is virtually unexplored.

It remains for an older generation to provide the example and suitable standards upon which youth can pattern their lives and conduct.

Religion in Public Education

How far can the public go in maintaining a climate friendly to religion? At what point does "religion" become sectarian? The great religions have certain areas of general agreement. They all agree in general upon the inherent worth and dignity of the individual, and emphasize brotherhood. They all have the Golden Rule and the Ten Commandments or their equivalent. The great religions acknowledge God and assert divine sanction for morality. Such fundamental values are not the exclusive possessions of any one religion. They belong to all mankind. These values are nonsectarian, but we divide sharply into sectarian groups when we define God and explain revelation.

The concept of God varies all the way from a personal living God to a philosophical ideal or First Cause. Some elevate the state or society to the level of God. If "God" is viewed merely as the ultimate source of values, and if religion be defined as our response to this ultimate, then statism, humanism, and secularism are themselves sectarian religions. They are so recognized and taught as theological points of view in schools of theology. The public schools have no more right to teach philosophical secularism than they have to teach any other sectarian religion.

In America all religious groups are minorities, or are divided into subgroups which are minorities. The rights of all minorities are respected, but no minority (and not even a majority) can force its religious beliefs or disbeliefs upon others through the public schools. For example, atheists may disbelieve in God and may teach their children that there is no God. The public schools must fully respect their rights, but atheists cannot require the schools to teach atheism. The public schools cannot teach that the Declaration of Independence and our historic traditions are based upon a fallacy.

The public schools observe special days in accordance with this policy. There is almost no limit to the use of Thanksgiving in the schools. But special days with sectarian significance, such as Christmas, Easter, and Yom Kippur, require more careful treatment. The schools take appropriate note of any special day widely observed in the community, and naturally emphasize Christmas, but the public schools cannot use any holiday to teach the Christian religion as contrasted with Judaism or any other religion. . . . Religion should be taught, but the teaching of religion as such is left to the home and the church. The school, the home, and the church supplement each other as educational institutions. Each has its essential place in American life, and no one of them can take the place of any other. The public schools support and cooperate with the home, the church, and all other character-building agencies of the community. A well-rounded program of education in any community is a cooperative effort.—JEROME NATHANSON in *Progressive Education*.

A POEM FOR TEACHING

By MILTON R. STERN

EGO

By PHILIP BOOTH

When I was on Night Line,
flying my hands to park
a big-bird B-29,
I used to command the dark:
four engines were mine

to jazz; I was ground-crew,
an unfledged pfc,
but when I waved planes through
that flight line in Tennessee,
my yonder was wild blue.

Warming up, I was hot
on the throttle, logging an hour
of combat, I was the pilot
who rogered the tower.
I used to take off a lot.

With a flat-hat for furlough
and tin wings to sleep on,
I fueled my high-octane ego:
I buzzed, I landed my jeep on
the ramp, I flew low.

When a cross-country hop
let down, I was the big deal
who signaled big wheels to stop.
That's how I used to feel.
I used to get all revved up.

Lest the student wonder what a poet thinks he's doing writing about aviators, the following brief biography of Philip Booth has been included. It comes from the announcement sheet for Mr. Booth's book of poetry, *Letter from a Distant Land* (New York: Viking Press, 1957, $3.00). It may help the teacher dispel the notion that all poets are semitransparent creatures of the garret, clad in rags, velvet ties, and uncontrolled emotion. "Philip Booth, after graduation from Dartmouth, was an Air Force pilot in World War II. He is now an instructor in English at Wellesley, and lives with his wife and three small children not far from Walden Pond." [According to his description in his title poem, he and his wife work the small "farm" on which they live.]

Perhaps one of the most immediate uses of this poem is to illustrate the point that poetry need not be, in the student's eyes, "sissy," or "square," or "just pretty," or dull. For instance, students seem to expect poetry to ride on a dead pattern of jogging metrics whose form seems to have no apparent use. Or, if the student is not faced with the stuff that allows teacher to force him into a bout of mind over meter, then he cannot see why the poem should not be honest prose. Increasingly, however, since the Imagists and the early Robert Frost, poets have attacked the problem of unifying arbitrary limits of verse forms with natural speech rhythms.

When read according to its punctuation, "Ego" proceeds as easily as conversation;

EDITOR'S NOTE

This explication of Philip Booth's poem "Ego" inaugurates a new Clearing House *series on teachable contemporary poetry. Since such poems most often appear in quality magazines and paperbacks, this series will be found in succeeding months in our "TV and the Newer Media" section, which is devoted to relating the humanities and popular culture.*

Milton Stern teaches American literature at the University of Illinois, which is publishing his book on Melville next fall.

yet so skillfully is the sentence structure handled that the everyday rhythms occur within a tight *ababa* rhyme scheme, and the student has been reading "just pretty" without knowing it. In this way, the poet inveigles the reader into a consideration of the poem, surprising him with form which otherwise he might not have appreciated or, indeed, even have approached. Poetic convention is preserved here not for its own sake, but as a self-imposed limit whose very rigorousness forces a strenuous exercise of the artist's skill. The deceptive natural speech, when seen in its relation to the verse form, carries the student along with the artist to a recognition of how art imposes patterns upon the raw materials of life and language and thus gives our experience meaning by *organizing* it.

But, since rhyme and rhythm alone will not impress this upon the average student, we can turn to the experience of the poem's Ego. Most noticeable is the diction with which Mr. Booth has chosen to organize his poem. Phrases like "to jazz," "my yonder was wild blue," "hot on the throttle" (or "I was hot"), "rogered the tower," "take off," "flat-hat," "tin wings," "high-octane," "I buzzed," "cross-country hop," "big deal," "big wheels," "get all revved up," are neither "sissy" nor "square" nor dull to the contemporary mind—and perhaps it should be noted here that the body of Mr. Booth's poetry makes it evident that he is consciously interested in communicating with his contemporaries en masse, which makes much of his poetry excellent for teaching to junior-high and high-school students. On the level of literal meaning, these terms are not cute, written for their own sake. Rather, they immediately relate to the experience of the narrator, a young man in the Air Force, and to the bread-and-butter terminology of his surroundings.

Yet, when the students are asked to explain what these jazzy terms have in common, they will notice that the words are highly selected to create the popular image of the military flier: recklessness, boyish charm mingled with power and know-how, a kind of Hollywood, adolescent pretension to dash and derring-do. Notice how this self-conscious boy's image of himself is accentuated in the mention of the soft, special, swept-back aviator's cap worn for show on furlough. The ridicule accrues from the boy's not having earned—in *reality*—the right to this appearance. He is a fledgling ("unfledged") who has not had the reality of the experience which his pretentious mind imagines for him while he logs his hour of nonexistent combat. His imagination of experience and actual experience are as yet two different things. While assigned to guiding to their berths the night flights taxiing in on the runway, he indeed had a too volatile "high-octane" ego: he saw himself not as just a pfc with a subordinate (albeit responsible) job, but as the Image of the Aviator. The image and the narrator's relationship to that image are created exquisitely well by the "fly-boy lingo" which is the perfect vehicle for the expression of his experience, and which is also peculiarly in tune with the actualities of the language of the twentieth century reader, young or old.

The language of the poem performs yet one more task. It evaluates the narrator's youthful "experience" as being, somehow, immature and slightly ridiculous. The narrator saw himself not in the cold reality of his job, but in his fancy. Like an irresponsible kid in his hot rod, he "flies" his jeep, buzzing the field in sensational, exhibitionistic stunts. The self-consciousness of the furlough hat has been seen. In the pun "big wheels," the nature of the lingo leads the reader to expect not only the literal-level meanings of the airplane wheels but also the meaning of Very Important Persons. And the narrator saw himself as the "big deal" who told even the "big wheels" where to "head in." All told, the young man whose experience is presented got "all revved up" out of any pro-

portion to the actuality and real responsibility of his job—again, the punning levels of meaning in "I used to take off a lot," in which the imagined take-off as pilot, the general taking off from reality, and the evasion of responsibility are all implied.

When the student has seen that the poem is a satire of an immature attitude and an unreal image, it is time to wave him toward the wild blue yonder of poetry's subtlety. If the student is asked to look once more at the sentence structure, he notices that three lines, unlike the rest, are extremely brief sentences: "I used to take off a lot," and the last two lines of the poem. Their very abruptness marks them for the reader as having special importance. "I used to take off a lot" is the statement summing up the relationship between the young man and his experience, and which leads to the satire. But the last two lines ring a slightly different note. The major burden of the last two lines is an emphasis upon the past tense: "That's how I *used* to feel." And in the dry humor of "I used to get all revved up" is the wry appraisal of his past self that the man in the present, writing the poem, has shed.

But the abrupt emphasis on the past, the feeling of "now it's over and done," does more than just intensify the dominant, satiric tone of the poem. At the same time it intensifies that tone, it subtly undercuts it with a sense of loss, of an irretrievable past. That is, by implication, the narrator *no longer* gets all revved up. If he has gained a sense of reality and responsibility, if he has matured beyond the adolescence of his past self, he has also lost the zest and verve and gusto—unrealistic and ridiculous as it may have been—which allows youth to romanticize its prosaic surroundings. The loss may be anything. It may be that one's identity as part of a team (in this case the Air Force) allows one the emotional vitality and luxury of seeing oneself as bigger than one is in real life size, and this is what has been lost. Or it may be that just being associated with a dramatic instance of man's dominion over his circumstances—flying, for instance—allows one to feel that one has the power and invincibility of all man, even the most powerful of individual men. The loss may be—and is—one, or all, or none of these. The specific loss is not so important as the general loss of more-than-self which was lost with immaturity that was satirized and deserved to be satirized, but which was, nevertheless, a sad loss.

Once the student sees this, he sees how poetry extends its subtle self to more than the immediate subject matter at hand on the literal level. For the loss of young ego is a loss that occurs to all men—although the youthful student may find this the hardest part of the poem to accept.

If the student, troubled by the discrepancy between the kind of language he expects to find in poetry and the kind of language he does find in "Ego," asks if this is really a "great" poem, perhaps an honest no would be the best answer. For in order that "Ego" offer a profound examination of the relationship between youth and age, the real self and the imagined self, appearance and actuality, the poem would have to tell us more than it does about the present "I" who writes this poem of the past. All this poem offers is an instance, not an examination. But this is to say that "Ego" should have been a different poem, and it is foolish to kick a cub because it is not a full-grown lion. The poem does not *pretend* to do more than it does, and the light tone and diction announce honestly the lightness of the poem. The tone and language are perfectly suited to the theme, or "meaning." If "Ego" is but a cub, it is a comely and healthy one.

This first offering of "Poems for Teaching" has been a lightweight, attractive, easy-to-get-at poem. The next issue will present a "heavier" poem, also by Philip Booth, called "Instruction in the Art." [For further evaluation of Booth's poetry, see page 505.]

Book Reviews

FORREST IRWIN, *Book Review Editor*

The English Language Arts in the Secondary School prepared by the COMMISSION ON THE ENGLISH CURRICULUM of the National Council of Teachers of English. New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, Inc., 1956. 488 pages, $4.00.

The avowed purpose of this volume, the third in a series of five publications by the National Council of Teachers of English, is to apply at the secondary level "the principles of curriculum development established by research findings and by the tested experience of the Commission, the Committee, and teachers throughout the country."

The nature of the content of Part I is suggested by chapters entitled "The World the Adolescent Faces" and "The Adolescent the Teacher Faces." In analyzing the problem of "teacher purpose" v. "pupil purpose," the commission takes the position that the English teacher has a twofold responsibility. In the first place, the English teacher must understand the adolescent, the world in which the adolescent lives, the interests the adolescent has, what he wants to do, what he wants to get. In the second place, the English teacher must select the methods and materials which will fit those pupil purposes or wants.

Likewise the nature of the content of Part II is suggested by several titles: "Designing the Program," "Building Instructional Units," "Meeting Youth's Needs through Literature," and "Meeting Youth's Needs through Writing." Three chapters are devoted to developing competence in reading, speaking, and listening; one chapter, to developing competence in grammar, usage, and spelling. In another chapter, "Making Communication Arts and Skills Reinforce Each Other," the material is based upon the rationale that the four communication skills are not discrete or distinct, but interrelated. In other words, communication skills, different from Topsy, don't just grow.

Tangled indeed are the threads of instruction in English—that instruction which too often seeks to serve in the same class the percentage of students who will attend college and those who will not. Actually, one of the most persistent questions besetting English teachers is: "What can we do to insure our youngsters' success when they get to the University?" So notes Dr. George Robert Carlsen in a recent article (*English Journal*, October, 1956).

In the final chapter of this volume, "Meeting College Entrance Requirements in English," the commission faces squarely this problem of articulation between high school and college. Although the commission members offer no formula for perfect articulation, they do cite guiding principles to help those teachers who are attempting to increase the ease with which students may move from high school to college.

This volume is concrete evidence that we have traveled far from the emphasis on specific ground to be covered to the emphasis on the development of mature powers of thinking and expression through constant use of language in reading, writing, speaking, and listening, in purposeful situations under expert direction. The question now arises, "What preparation will teachers (the exper directors) need in order to implement this new language arts program in the secondary school?" Perhaps the fifth volume, *The Preparation of Teachers of the English Language Arts*, which is now being readied, will give us the answer to this question.

EDNA LUE FURNESS

Effective Teaching in Secondary Schools by WILLIAM M. ALEXANDER and PAUL M. HALVERSON. New York: Rinehart and Co., Inc., 1956. 564 pages, $5.75.

Effective Teaching in Secondary Schools, in the words of the authors, "is intended to be used as a textbook in methods of secondary school teaching and as a reference for all teachers in junior and senior high schools who are interested in study and improvement of their work."

Throughout the 564 pages of the book the many specific practices and materials presented are selected to implement a philosophy of teaching which regards learning as a dynamic goal-seeking activity on the part of the learned. The concern is with the *purposeful* experiences of the learner which can be guided to result in desirable changes in behavior. The job of the teacher is viewed as helping learners to formulate problems and to carry on problem-solving activities. In doing so good teachers follow no one set of techniques but instead use whatever means seem best to help learners to become increasingly effective persons. Part I of the book sets the stage in terms of this concept of the dynamic nature of learning and of teaching.

In Part II the emphasis is on "The Classroom as a Learning Laboratory," in which guided group

Case Studies in Human Relationships in Secondary School

EDITED BY

ESTHER LLOYD-JONES, RUTH BARRY, AND BEVERLY WOLF

The 26 situational case studies in this book illustrate questions, problems, and issues arising from interrelationships of high school students, teachers, administrators, and community members. The cases are based upon actual incidents in junior and senior high schools, and lend themselves to either individual or group study. Questions following the case studies will stimulate discussion about the pressures and motivations of the individuals in each instance.

This realistically written book is designed to enable all members of a school community to work together toward more wisdom and insight for the situations they must face. *135 pages Paper $2.00*

Series in Guidance and Student Personnel Administration

BUREAU OF PUBLICATIONS

Teachers College, Columbia University

New York 27, N.Y.

work is central. A splendid analysis is given of the "Dynamics of the Classroom Group" and how to utilize group motivation in teaching. Democratic self-direction and self-discipline are the goals. Specific ways and means are given for teachers working toward these ends.

Much attention is given in Part III to organization of the class for co-operative learning activities. The teacher wanting to know how to utilize pupil-teacher planning and small-group work will find here many examples of know-how.

The growing problem of how to care for the wide range of individual differences among students in classroom teaching is given much practical treatment in Part IV. Very usable methods for studying and providing for the individual needs of the learner within the group are spelled out in detail. Specific steps in the planning of resource units, teaching units, and daily lessons are set forth. Many of the newer techniques of evaluating and reporting pupil progress are also included in this part.

In the final chapter the teacher is given concrete suggestions relative to methods of evaluating and improving his own teaching efforts. Self-rating charts and in-service education suggestions are presented. Throughout the book, many additional sources of resource materials are to be found.

DON MCGARRY

Allied Activities in the Secondary School by LOUIS R. KILZER, HAROLD H. STEPHENSON, and H. ORVILLE NORDBERG. New York: Harper and Brothers, 1956. 357 pages, $4.50.

Here is a book that will be of value to those who are working with allied (cocurricular) activities. This volume is easy to read and is well balanced in terms of theory and practice. The reader soon gains the impression that the authors are familiar with the extensive literature in this field and that they have had much practical experience with allied activities in secondary schools.

In the first chapter, they state what they believe to be the basic philosophy which must guide the worker in allied activities and some of the guiding principles which must be followed to insure a sound program of allied activities. This philosophy contains three main tenets: (1) that the experiences in allied activities must be focused on the interests, needs, and problems of children and youth; (2) that students must be actively involved in all phases of the program, including direct participation in determining the nature of the program, in promoting the learning experiences of the program, and in assisting with the formulation of administrative and supervisory policies; and (3) that administrators and teachers must look upon

this field as an important part of the total instructional program of the school.

Of the thirteen remaining chapters, two are devoted to a consideration of some of the problems of "Encouraging and Limiting Participation" and of "Financial Aspects of Allied Activities" and eleven to a detailed presentation of the several types of activities commonly found in allied activity programs. Many administrative and supervisory suggestions and recommendations on types of activities are included in each chapter. All of the chapters on individual activities contain much information and many helpful suggestions. Four of these chapters deserve special commendation, namely, Chapter III on "The Homeroom," Chapter V on "Secret Societies," Chapter VII on "Pupil Participation in School Government," and Chapter XII on "School Camping, Outdoor Education and Field Trips."

At the end of each chapter are exercises and problems and an extensive bibliography for those who wish them.

JAMES H. MOYER

High-School Journalism by HAROLD SPEARS and C. H. LAWSHE. New York: The Macmillan Co., 1956. 452 pages, $5.88.

"A reporter's job is never finished. There is always something more he can do to improve himself and the paper." This effective signpost of the faculty adviser's enigmatic position seems to prevail in all its glory within the well-written pages of the present revised edition of *High-School Journalism*.

The deep caverns of journalism have been well explored by Messrs. Spears and Lawshe to provide a readable and workmanlike study of the field for the student and teacher of journalism. From Kipling's six servingmen (who, what, when, where, why, how) to a glossary of newspaper terminology, the reader is exposed to examples (good and somewhat indifferent) of journalese on all levels in the high schools throughout the United States.

Similarity of actual newspaper experience is stressed throughout the volume, in which assignment work sheets and possible assignments accompany each chapter. These are to be taken in sequence, unless otherwise noted by the "Director of Learning." Easy-to-read (and comprehend) type adds to the general versatility of the work in all courses, from a full-time, credit course in journalism, to part-time club newspaper work. Fine sections on advertising, circulation, production, publicity, make-up, proofreading, and the all-important preparation of copy for the printer impress one with the general over-all utility of *High-School Journalism*.

The reviewer senses a more than incidental mention of the responsibility of the student editors and reporters to the greater values of the times. Responsibility, good taste, critical evaluations, and the function of the newspaper are mentioned and discussed frequently. It is to this end, and others, that the authors have prepared a noble work sheet for spirited and dedicated students of a most noble calling.

KENNETH J. HILFMAN

Science in Today's World by MAURICE U. AMES, ARTHUR O. BAKER, and JOSEPH F. LEAHY. Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1956. 280 pages, $3.32.

This text is well suited for an introductory course in general science. The material is arranged in small sections which fit the interest span of the junior-high-school age group. The vocabulary and illustrations are well chosen for students of general science. The material relates very well to the pupils and some of the problems they face in daily life. Many items in the text provide a "jumping off" place for further discussion or research on the part of the interested or gifted student.

At the end of each section is a group of good questions which adequately covers the work involved and also a group of "Can You Do These" questions at the end of each cycle (unit). The latter questions involve home or school experiments or problems which can be handled with inexpensive and common equipment. These provide good demonstrations for either classroom or home use.

The book presents in a brief way the major fields of science with which the student will come in contact in school or college. The section on astronomy, meteorology, and weather is particularly important as most students will not have this material in later schooling unless they specialize in the field. The book is arranged in five cycles or units which are divided into three problems each. The material is well presented and scientifically accurate. The illustrations are on the same page as the written material and are of high quality.

JOHN H. ROSENGREN

Living for Young Moderns by IRENE E. MCDERMOTT and FLORENCE WILLIAMS NICHOLAS. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co., 1956. 396 pages, $3.80.

The authors have written in a unique and interesting style about a subject that is of vital importance today—the way of living of our young people. It is more than a textbook. It could serve as a guide to our youth and would be invaluable to parents as well. The book attempts to instill correct attitudes into the minds of its readers. In fact,

this could well be its most significant contribution. It provides excellent opportunities to young people for self-evaluation and, at the same time, serves as an inspiration for the right kind of living. The book is made up of eleven chapters, each dealing with an area of living. In the first chapter, each student evaluates his own life. The succeeding chapters deal with such subjects as family relationships, teen-age money problems, dating and growing up, marriage, making a house a home, and the pursuit of happiness.

Because of its presentation, the text would lend itself to small discussion groups and should motivate the most timid student. The illustrations and the examples are of real life problems which every high-school student continually faces. A feature of the text is the interspersing of pertinent questions, problems, and projects throughout each chapter. Typical questions and discussion topics are: What is reasonable for parents to expect from a girl who is allowed to date? From a boy? Do you think that teen-age boys and girls should take care of their own rooms? Are you argumentative and disagreeable when your family protests about your bad habits? How can conflicts between parents and teen-agers be eased? What kind of a person do you want to marry? The book is well written and exceptionally well illustrated.

V. L. MORRISON

Administering Curriculum Planning by EDWARD A. KRUG, CHESTER D. BABCOCK, JOHN GUY FOWLKES, and H. T. JAMES. New York: Harper and Brothers, 1956. 324 pages, $4.00.

Administering Curriculum Planning deals with the relationship of administration to curriculum planning by giving emphasis to administrative practices that facilitate and encourage curriculum planning. This book is based on sound and well-supported principles and practices, the use of which gives assurance of a more effective classroom program. Curriculum is defined as "all the means in the school which provide students with opportunities for desirable learning experiences." Thus curriculum planning is considered as a continuing process and the administrative function developed is consistent with this concept of curriculum.

The authors make a real contribution in pointing out the values to be derived from state-wide, system-wide and local levels of organization. Specific factors related to curriculum planning on each of these levels are made more realistic by the use of existing programs as examples. The necessity of co-operative relationships among various levels of organization and the responsibility of the local administrator or curriculum leader to facilitate co-operative efforts are stressed. In keeping with the previously identified concept of curriculum, the authors have recognized the necessity for teachers, students, and laymen to participate in the program of curriculum planning. The role of each of the participants and the nature of administrative policies that make this participation productive are vividly presented. Considerable attention is given to administrative policies and practices related to time, curriculum materials, consultants, financial assistance, and other facets of curriculum planning. The consistency of the content and the soundness of processes presented make this book of considerable value to school administrators and others interested in curriculum study and improvement.

F. L. TEMPLE

Who's Who Among Our Reviewers

Dr. Furness is professor of English and foreign language education at the University of Wyoming.

Mr. Hilfman is chairman, department of social sciences, Bogota High School, New Jersey.

Dr. McGarey is professor of secondary education, the Pennsylvania State University.

Mr. Morrison teaches social studies in the Technical High School in St. Cloud, Minnesota.

Dr. Moyer is chairman of the faculty in secondary education, the Pennsylvania State University.

Mr. Rosengren teaches biology at Ridgewood High School in New Jersey.

Dr. Temple is associate professor of education, University of Alabama College of Education.

Books Received

Adolescent Development and Adjustment by LESTER D. CROW and ALICE CROW. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1956. 555 pages, $5.50.

Algebra, First Course by JOHN R. MAYOR and MARIE S. WILCOX. Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1956. 392 pages, $3.08.

Balboa: Swordsman and Conquistador by FELIX RIESENBERG, JR. New York: Random House, Inc., 1956. 178 pages, $1.50.

The Columbia Encyclopedia, Supplement of Illustrations with a Record of Events 1930-56. New York: Columbia University Press, 1956. $5.00.

Directory for Exceptional Children (ad ed.) edited by E. NELSON HAYES. Boston: Porter Sargent, 1956. 247 pages, $4.00.

Educational Psychology in the Classroom by HENRY CLAY LINDGREN. New York: John Wiley and Sons, Inc., 1956. 521 pages, $5.00.

Educators Guide to Free Slidefilms (8th ed.) compiled and edited by MARY FOLEY HORKHEIMER and JOHN W. DIFFOR. Randolph, Wis.: Educators Progress Service, 1956. 188 pages, $5.00.

Elementary Teachers Guide to Free Curriculum Materials (13th ed.) edited by PATRICIA HORKHEIMER SUTTLES. Randolph, Wis.: Educators Progress Service, 1956. 318 pages, $5.50.

The Essentials of Educational Statistics by FRANCIS G. CORNELL. New York: John Wiley and Sons, Inc., 1956. 375 pages, $5.75.

Fun with Your Typewriter by MADGE ROEMER. Indian Hills, Colo.: Falcon's Wing Press, 1956. 105 pages, $1.00.

The Golden Promise by EDITH H. BLACKBURN. New York: Abelard-Schuman, Inc., 1956. 160 pages, $2.50.

Good English through Practice by MARJORIE WESCOTT BARROWS. New York: Henry Holt and Co., 1956. 309 pages, $2.76.

A Graduate Program in an Undergraduate College —The Sarah Lawrence Experience. Middletown, Conn.: Wesleyan University Press, 1956. 119 pages, $1.50.

Helping Teenagers Explore Values by HAROLD ALBERTY *et al.* Columbus, Ohio: Ohio State University Press, 1956. 80 pages, $1.00.

How to Announce for Radio and Television edited by WILLIAM I. KAUFMAN. New York: Hastings House, 1956. 95 pages, $2.50.

Indians in School by JAMES E. OFFICER. Tucson: University of Arizona, 1956. 148 pages, $2.50.

Know Your World compiled by GEORGE E. ROSS. New York: E. P. Dutton and Co., Inc., 1956. 65 pages, $2.50.

Living with Yourself by MARTIN L. COLE. Boston: Christopher Publishing House, 1956. 60 pages, $2.00.

Mapping the World—Mother Earth's Portrait by ERWIN RAISZ. New York: Abelard-Schuman, Inc., 1956. 114 pages, $3.00.

Measurement and Evaluation in Psychology and Education by ROBERT L. THORNDIKE and ELIZABETH HAGEN. New York: John Wiley and Sons, Inc., 1955. 575 pages, $5.50.

Milk Flood by PAUL COREY. New York: Abelard-Schuman, Inc., 1956. 189 pages, $2.50.

The Mississippi Bubble by THOMAS B. COSTAIN. New York: Random House, Inc., 1955. 185 pages, $1.50.

Nawaho Sister by EVELYN SIBLEY LAMPMAN. Garden City, N.Y.: Doubleday and Co., Inc., 1956. 189 pages, $2.75.

The New Basic Science by J. DARRELL BARNARD and LON EDWARDS. New York: The Macmillan Co., 1956. 632 pages, $4.20.

Our United States: Its History in Maps by EDGAR B. WESLEY. Chicago: Denoyer-Geppert Co., 1956. 96 pages, $2.00.

Paperbound Books in Print, Fall-Winter 1956. New York: R. R. Bowker Co. 152 pages, $2.00.

Problems and Practices in New York City Schools (1955 Yearbook) by YEARBOOK COMMITTEE. New York: New York Society for the Experimental Study of Education, $2.50. Distributed by Joseph Mersand, Editor, Jamaica High School, Jamaica 32, New York.

Problems Facing America and You (rev. ed.) by HORACE KIDGER and WILLIAM E. DUNWIDDIE. Boston: Ginn and Co., 1956. 636 pages, $4.32.

Progress in Reading and Literature by ETHEL M. ORR, EVELYN T. HOLSTON, and STELLA S. CENTER. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1956. 660 pages, $3.16.

The Range and Pasture Book by ROY L. DONAHUE, EVERETT F. EVANS, and L. I. JONES. Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1956. 406 pages, $4.20.

Resources for Special Education edited by MERLE E. FRAMPTON and ELENA D. GALL. Boston: Porter Sargent, 1956. 256 pages, $3.50.

The Science Teacher in Action by HELEN LAWRENCE MERRILL. Boston: Christopher Publishing House, 1956. 84 pages, $2.25.

Sealskins for Silk by EVELYN CHEESMAN. New York: Abelard-Schuman, Inc., 1956. 237 pages, $2.50.

Self-Concepts of Bright Boys with Learning Difficulties by ANN MARIE WALSH. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1956. 79 pages, $2.50.

The Septuagint Bible translated by Charles Thomson. Indian Hills, Colo.: Falcon's Wing Press, 1954. 1,426 pages, $6.50.

Sex Education (Dutton Series) by MARION O. LERRIGO and HELEN SOUTHARD. ("A Story About You," 63 pages, $2.00; "Parents' Privilege," 64 pages, $2.00; "What's Happening to Me?" 64 pages, $2.00; "Sex Facts and Attitudes," 88 pages, $2.50; "Learning about Love," 64 pages, $2.00.) New York: E. P. Dutton and Co., Inc., 1955.

Technique, Speed, and Accuracy Typing by BRUCE I. BLACKSTONE. Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1956. 71 pages, $1.35.

That Jones Girl by ELIZABETH HAMILTON FRIERMOOD. Garden City, N.Y.: Doubleday and Co., Inc., 1956. 252 pages, $2.75.

Thomas Jefferson, Father of Democracy by VINCENT SHEEAN. New York: Random House, Inc., 1953. 184 pages, $1.50.

The Worlds Around Us by PATRICK MOORE. New York: Abelard-Schuman, Inc., 1956. 157 pages, $2.50.

TV & the Newer Media

Associate Editors: HENRY B. MALONEY *and* MYLES M. PLATT

Magazines and Paperbacks: For Teachable Poetry

Teachers who have clung to the traditional textbook poets, the Longfellows, Lowells, and others, might have noticed that these names don't excite as much interest in the classroom as they once did. Perhaps this disinterest is because the children of the T. S. Eliot-influenced college generation are becoming more numerous in the classroom. Perhaps, like Oscar Williams, they found "the provincial simulacrum of what was made in the British Isles" rather dull. Or the reason may be that teen-agers who lend their support to six-week song hits are naturally opposed to the durability of aging poetry. It seems evident that some of these poets are not rhyming about thoughts of today and that many of their deathless verities have all but succumbed.

For these reasons, it behooves the high-school literature teacher to investigate the poetry of some of the moderns who appear in the literate pages of such journals as the *Atlantic* or the *Saturday Review*. Other provocative poems may be found by paging through paperback anthologies.

Or, in order to save time, teachers can investigate a modern poet who has risen above the masses of contemporary people who write or dabble at poetry, a gifted young man named Philip Booth. [For a further discussion of Mr. Booth, see page 497.] His poems have appeared in the better magazines for the past five years. His first gathering of these poems is the 1956 Lamont Poetry Selection.

Mr. Booth's collection (*Letter from a Distant Land*, Viking, $3.00) contains some allusions that are too earthy for even the followers of Elvis, but it also contains some charming, image-filled poems which should convince teen-agers that poetry need not deal with such moss-covered subjects as Paul Revere and Hiawatha. "This Land" and "Sunday Climb" show the fascination of viewing the earth from above (Booth was an Air Force pilot in World War II), and the students can compare their reaction to the flying sequence in *Cinerama*. "Great Farm," "Green Song," and "Vermont: Indian Summer" portray the sights and sounds of nature in a realistic fashion.

But the most fascinating aspect of Booth's poetry for the protean high-school student should be his versatility, which contrasts sharply with some of the johnny-one-note poets old texts contain. Have the class listen to the ear-pleasing cadence of "The Long Night" or the simulated train sound of "Crossing." Let them inhale the leaf smell of "Raker" and blow out their chests with the ground crewman in "Ego."

Of the forty-two poems in the collection, I thought that the most practical group for high-school teachers consisted of "Siasconset Song," "Crossing," and "Design." These three make use of a brilliant word economy with their short lines and careful diction. For teen-agers, whose vocabularies are frequently indiscriminate catch-alls for trite words and slang, a careful study of these three poems could prove extremely fruitful.

H.B.M.

TV Ballet

Late this month the Sadler's Wells Ballet Company will present their version of *Cinderella* on television (N.B.C.-TV, Monday, April 29, 8:00–9:30 P.M.), giving viewers a further opportunity to decide whether TV is a suitable medium for ballet. My own opinion, based on last year's *The Sleeping Beauty*, is that the two are incompatible. Ballet depends on fluidity within a certain area (in contrast, say, to movies, which approach formal perfection through an unconfined fluidity), which the TV screen is unable to encompass. Television attempts to compensate for its lack of side-to-side scope by increasing the depth of the scene. In other words, instead of an emphasis on a spectacle within a proscenium, a telescopic effect is achieved in which one seems to be looking through layers of dancers.

There is something mildly hypnotic about well-staged ballet, it seems to me. The dark theater, the gaudy costumes, the quiet motion, capture some of the entrancing qualities of a soft snowfall on a winter's night. In short, the theatrical atmosphere becomes a part of the art form, a part which television (even for the few who have color) cannot reproduce. Even motion-picture ballet, such as staged in *The Red Shoes*, becomes a kind of small wan slipper on TV.

However, if TV ballet can captivate the pre-Superman set, it is achieving a goal of sorts. If more children can be converted to ballet appreciation at an early age, there will be fewer Philistines to question the virility of ballet lovers later on.

In discussing the telecast with your class, you will find a good starting point is whether the students think that the girls taking ballet and modern dance are more qualified to evaluate the program than the "untrained" people. From here, the question of who is and who is not qualified to judge art can lead the class into many avenues of valuable discussion.

H.B.M.

Transcriptions

The ballads of America's wars offer documents of social history with an immediacy and impact valuable in the classroom. Let no one imagine that such social history is an unimportant record of the American experience. In our folk music have been preserved the feelings of the people about the things that happened to them, their boasts and sorrows, their hope and dismay. Here one can recapture the pride of patriots in the exploits of Mad Anthony Wayne at Stony Point or hear the partisan triumph of Republicans, with the Alien and Sedition Acts safely repealed, shouting for Jefferson and liberty. Here Americans expressed reactions to Pakenham and Patterson, Bunker Hill and Bull Run, Boston's tea and Georgia's goober peas.

But no matter what the subject, the ballads are always more than a story in song. For it is the feelings of the people that give the music its power, a power that historical account alone can seldom supply in the same measure. At its best such music can restore a sense of wonder for that rich and moving segment of man's experience which we call the American heritage.

Ballads of the Revolution (sung by Wallace House with guitar, Folkways Records, Album No. FP 5001) reveals how the ballads of the American Revolution, often topically oriented, were adroit propaganda. The revolutionist, in hopeful bravado, defied world powers as he sang:

> Should Europe empty all her force,
> We'll meet her in array,
> And fight and shout, and fight
> For North America.

Proud of his new differences, he had only contempt for venerable English institutions: "What a court hath old England of folly and sin. . . ." The American patriot learned at Breed's Hill that "'tis sweet, oh, 'tis sweet for our country to die!" and even a fatally wounded British sergeant must recognize the justice of America's cause:

> Fight on, fight on, American boys. . . .
> Maintain your rights, year after year.
> God's on your side, you need not fear.

The exploits of Washington, John Paul Jones, and Joseph Warren are recorded with fervor and pride, while Cornwallis, Burgoyne, and Arnold march in infamy.

Despite the grimness of those long, hard years, humor often found a place in their songs. In the British mockery of "Yankee Doodle" (that tune which has served so many causes in so many times) the American found and adopted an image of himself. That same Yankee delightfully parodied a sentimental English ballad, "The Banks of the Dee," which languorously bade farewell to the soldier off to fight in America. The rebel parody advised him to return in haste to the lovely Dee and recommended that England more honestly defray its expenses "with natural drafts from the banks of the Dee."

Having selected a wide variety of ballads (a few demanding greater historical understanding than a high-school student is apt to have), House delivers them in an equally varied manner. His voice may require rehearing for most students to appreciate. His guitar accompaniment is versatile, effectively pacing the song, whether solemn or spirited.

In the *Ballads of the War of 1812* (sung by Wallace House with lute, Folkways Records, Album No. FP 5002), the factionalism of state and party which dominated the years immediately preceding the war appears in ballads like Whittier's "Song of the Vermonters." Adopting an independent stand, that small state issued a ringing challenge to encroaching neighbors:

> Come York or come Hampshire, come traitors or knaves,
> If ye rule o'er our land, ye shall rule o'er our graves;
> Our vow is recorded—our banner unfurled,
> In the name of Vermont we defy all the world!

Party sentiment found its expression, too, and after the Alien and Sedition Acts were declared unconstitutional the Republicans rejoiced by singing:

From Georgia up to Lake Champlain,
From seas to Mississippi's shore;
Ye sons of freedom loud proclaim,
THE REIGN OF TERROR IS NO MORE.

Since the war opened disastrously on land for the Americans, it is to a British balladeer that we must turn for an account of Hull's surrender at Detroit. The American General pleads, "Oh, hold your guns, brave British boys, for fear you slay us all." Much later, an American song sadly noted this same loss of Detroit:

Let William Hull be counted null, and let him not be nam-ed
Upon the role of valiant souls—of him we are asham-ed. . . .

American success at sea, however, did much to offset earlier defeats, and the hopes of the new nation rose as British vessels sank. House has included five ballads which recount the major naval conflicts of the war. At the outset the British Navy gave slight thought to American strength at sea. After the victories of the *Constitution*, the *Java*, the *United States*, and the *Hornet*, American seamen could justly sing:

Now coil up your nonsense 'bout England's great Navy,
And take in your slack about oak-hearted tars. . . .

The semicomic bombardment of Stonington, Connecticut, by British men-of-war is recorded in a delightful ballad which proudly announced:

They killed a goose, they killed a hen,
Three hogs they wounded in a pen;
They dashed away—and pray, what then?
That was not taking Stonington.

"Patriotic Diggers" celebrates the volunteers who created fortifications with "pickax, shovel, spade, crowbar, hoe, and barrow." Old Hickory's daring and the accuracy of the frontier long rifles were proclaimed, while other ballads celebrated Harrison's triumphs, Perry's victory, and such nearly forgotten events as the Aroostook War.

The ballads which Wallace House has recorded for us here help to clarify the circumstances and emotions which impelled men to fight what historians have sometimes called America's most needless and futile war. This collection adds a new dimension to a conflict which customarily has little appeal to high-school students.

FRANK and AUDREY HODGINS
University of Illinois

Television Drama

The editors of this column have frequently expressed their belief that the art of television drama (as used here, the term refers only to TV originals) is worthy of the English teacher's attention. They concede that many TV "dramatic" presentations are little more than potboilers which chuff relentlessly through the interims between commercials. They recognize the fact that TV playwrights labor under more taboos than other dramatists and that consequently the sphere in which these writers can operate is a cramped little room which dangles a few hundred yards below middle-class heaven. And yet they believe that TV drama as a means of artistic communication has a definite place in the literature curriculum. At its best, television drama blends the spontaneity of an actual performance with the mobility of setting that the motion picture can provide. But, of course, production techniques are only as important as the play itself. A lemon live and in color or a lemon on kinescope in black and white is still a lemon.

Because few (if any) high-school English anthologies include a TV play for classroom study, this department provides the following study guides for the first four plays in the collection, *Best Television Plays*, edited by Gore Vidal (Ballantine, 35 cents). A review of the book is available in the November, 1956, issue of THE CLEARING HOUSE (p. 190).

I. *The Mother* (Chayefsky).

A. 1. What is the purpose of the poor grammar and phonetic spelling?

2. The producer had to put some scenes on film. Why not put the whole play on film? Discuss the advantages and disadvantages of live TV drama.

3. Why would the role of Mother be difficult to enact?

B. 1. Are George's reasons for not wanting his mother-in-law selfish or not? Quote lines to support your answer.

2. Why was Mother unable to find satisfaction with the women in the park?

3. In what way is Mother's failure at work a combination of inefficiency and fate?

4. Why does Mother phone Frank and Marie before calling Annie?

5. What does Annie finally realize at the end of the play?

C. 1. Prepare a report providing information on people in important jobs who are active in their 70's and 80's.

2. Prepare an informative report on the purpose and benefits of Social Security.
3. Write a two-paragraph paper contrasting the mother-daughter relationship in this play with the one in "My Lost Saints" (III).

II. *Thunder on Sycamore Street* (Rose)

A. 1. Novels and movies frequently show what one character is doing while another is engaged in other business. This kind of simultaneous action is quite rare in television drama. What might be some reasons for this?
2. Are the three acts exactly concurrent, or is there a difference in Act III?
3. This play was written for television presentation. Discuss briefly how it would be less satisfactory if presented as a radio drama, stage play, or movie.

B. 1. How is suspense created in the play? At what point do we learn exactly what the mob intends to do?
2. Phyllis Hayes has two reasons for going ahead with the stoning. What are these reasons? How valid are they?
3. What change in Arthur's personality takes place during the play?
4. What does Joe mean when he says to his wife, "Anna, we have our freedom. If we beg for it, then it's gone"?
5. To achieve their end, people in a mob must remain anonymous, swirling parts of a mass. How does Joe Blake halt the mob?

C. 1. Would you say that the movies have helped to stereotype the ex-convict as a man who is going to return to crime?
2. Give a report to the class on the plight of Jean Valjean in the Victor Hugo classic, *Les Misérables*. (Many schools have access to the forty-minute cutting of the film version, starring Fredric March and Charles Laughton.)
3. For what other reasons are people "encouraged" to move from their neighborhood (see *Time*, April 16, 1956, "Buyer Beware," p. 24)?

III. *My Lost Saints* (Mosel)

A. 1. How does the line, "This is Kate's kitchen and she is proud of it," in the introduction gain importance?
2. Is there any genuinely likeable character in the play; that is, is there anyone you would like to have as a next-door neighbor?
3. Do you think that Mrs. Hallet seems self-analytical enough to make the introspective speech in the last act ("Didn't you know that about me?"), or is it out of character?
4. What is a psychosomatic illness?
5. Kate's mother was held legally responsible for the death of her hired man. Give a report on some of the things that property owners are liable for.

B. 1. Who shows more tolerance toward the other, Mrs. Koski or Mrs. Hallet? Give examples to support your answer.
2. In what ways does Kate exert influence over each member of the Hallet family?
3. At what point does Kate realize that her mother is not really sick?
4. Why does Kate agree to stay with the Hallets?
5. Who shows a greater maturation during the course of the play, Kate or the Hallets? Explain your answer.

C. 1. Read Ruth Suckow's short story "Carry-Over" (available in *A Start in Life* by Ruth Suckow or in the paperback anthology, *Twenty Grand Short Stories*) and compare Daisy's plight with Kate's.
2. Compare the hired man's death in this play with Robert Frost's dramatic poem, "The Death of the Hired Man."

IV. *Man on the Mountaintop* (Aurthur)

A. 1. Textbooks usually insert supplemental or explanatory information in the form of footnotes to clarify points the reader is not expected to know. What references in this play do you think that the average high-school student would have trouble with?
2. In this play, viewer interest is captured by contrast. What are the contrasting elements in the opening scene?
3. Why might some viewers find the ending unsatisfactory? What is your opinion of it?

B. 1. Who would you say is more responsible for Borden's plight, Borden or his father, or both? Explain.
2. Can you explain Dr. Borden's attitude toward his son in terms of the statement Borden made about his father: "He failed, but then he always failed"?
3. Throughout the play what reasons does Dr. Borden give for wanting to rehabilitate his son? Do these reasons show evidence of paternal affection?

C. 1. Borden is an ivory tower intellectual, while the Blakes are rather bohemian. What do these terms mean?

2. Write a paragraph giving several reasons why *Man on a Mountaintop* is a significant title for this play.

H.B.M.

Review of Related Literature

Frontier Photographer by WESLEY R. HURT and WILLIAM E. LASS. University of South Dakota and University of Nebraska Press, 1956. $4.50.

In *Frontier Photographer,* one of those fascinating little volumes hard to come by, Messrs. Hurt and Lass have pieced together not a biography in the traditional sense, but a running account of the everyday trials, hardships, and successes of life in a pioneer town, a life not told in words but seen through the lenses of Stanley J. Morrow, a young photographer who learned and perfected his techniques under the watchful tutorage of Mathew Brady.

Morrow, at the age of twenty-one and after fighting through some of the bitterest contests of the Civil War, volunteered to act as an assistant to Brady during the last year of fighting. After Appomattox, Morrow with his new bride went west to Yankton, the territorial capital of South Dakota, where he established a very successful photography business. The authors have included a hundred photographs taken between 1868 and 1883 which depict the life of a roaring frontier town with the sharpness produced only by an excellent photo.

Morrow, it would appear from his choice of subjects, was more than a photographer; he was a keen news reporter with an insight into the "big story." He accompanied the General Crook campaign against the Sioux in 1876. Although he did not join the marching army until late in the campaign, his photos of the travois litter transporting wounded, a soldier shooting a horse for food, the supply train on the march, and Crook's army bivouacked were developed with a clarity and precision that would make any modern photographer jealous. During the devastating Missouri River flood of 1881, Morrow's camera was everywhere. In a series of nine shots the gravity of nature on the rampage is vividly presented. Morrow also accompanied the burial expedition into the Little Big Horn country in 1877 to rebury the remains of Custer's valiant band.

To the teacher in the classroom, however, two other types of pictures in the book may prove to be even more useful. One type is Morrow's character studies of the Indians themselves. The bitterness of Red Cloud, immovable opponent of white occupation of Dakota and the victor of the annihilation of Fetterman's column, still stares out at the viewer after seventy-five years. Spotted Tail, a friend of General Crook who early realized the hopelessness of the Indian struggle, is shown with his wife and daughter. Other Morrow subjects include white men in council with Indians, a Sioux tree burial, Sacred Blanket, a 133-year-old patriarch, a papoose, Mandan dirt lodges, and Sitting Bull's shelter.

The second general type is the frontier town realistically portrayed in the series "the building of Deadwood." These photos include the jail, a rear view of a saloon decorated with discarded whisky bottles, and the main street where Wild Bill Hickok patrolled as marshal.

This unique volume is an asset to any teacher interested in demonstrating frontier life.

M.M.P.

SCREENINGS

Of the three films to be discussed herein this month, none will make movie history, but each has something worth noting that sets it off from more routine offerings. *The Teahouse of the August Moon* and *The Rainmaker* were comedies eminently successful on Broadway; and *A Roomful of Roses,* a less illustrious remnant of the 1955 season, has cleverly disguised its wholesome treatment of a contemporary family problem under the new title, *Teenage Rebel.*

Teenage Rebel

Despite the rather sordid inferences of its newspaper and magazine promotion (reminiscent of the recent misleading publicity for *The Bad Seed* and *Lust for Life*), *Teenage Rebel* is an interesting and realistic account of how an unhappy child of divorced parents comes to trust and love others, and to let them love her.

A lonely and neglected sixteen year old, sent to visit her mother after nearly ten years' separation, Dodie is exposed for the first time to real family warmth. Initially resentful and wary, she eventually begins to feel wanted and to enjoy her new surroundings. Later, faced with the fact that her father has wanted custody of Dodie only as a weapon against his ex-wife, the girl's newfound trust in herself and others is nearly destroyed. With her mother's sympathy and help, Dodie comes to realize that "no one is

ever quite the way we want them to be," and that even parents deserve forgiveness for their past mistakes. Finally deciding to stay with her new family, this teen-age "rebel" has learned to take people as they are, and to love part of them anyway.

Ginger Rogers and Michael Rennie are the mother and stepfather; Betty Lou Keim and Warren Berlinger recreate their Broadway roles as Dodie and the boy next door. Mildred Natwick plays a sympathetic and wryly humorous neighbor, and Rusty Swope is effectively impish as Dodie's half brother, aged seven.

The Rainmaker

The Rainmaker is a poetic farce in a much different vein, with more lightweight philosophical overtones than the preceding domestic drama. A delightful romp, it concerns a traveling charlatan (Burt Lancaster) whose careless romanticism brings some happy upsets one droughty summer to a normally well-regulated Kansas ranching household.

A sweet-talking, amiable sort of con man is Starbuck, and Lancaster plays the part with a bravado that shows off N. Richard Nash's ebullient imagery to good advantage. During Starbuck's twenty-four-hour sojourn three miracles come to pass: bumbling young Jim (hilariously performed by Earl Holliman) gets independent enough to ignore his disapproving and ever practical older brother (Lloyd Bridges) and becomes affianced to the "fastest" girl in town; the rancher's daughter Lizzie (effervescently performed by Katharine Hepburn) becomes convinced that she is pretty and procures herself a husband; and Starbuck for the first time leaves rain behind him, rain he has so often deviously promised! Played with exuberance and gusto by a grand cast, *The Rainmaker* is an engaging comedy, sure to persuade you that we all can use a healthy dash of dreams and devil-may-care in our lives.

The Teahouse of the August Moon

The recipient of a Pulitzer Prize and a Critics' Circle Award for its literary and theatrical merit, as well as the Antoinette Perry Award to David Wayne for his "best performance of the season" as Sakini, *The Teahouse of the August Moon* as brought to the screen is a bit disappointing. Much of the subtlety and wisdom of Vern Sneider's novel and John Patrick's prize-winning play have been sacrificed in striving for a broader audience appeal in the filmed version. The gentle satiric humor intrinsic in the often touching story is generally lost. The inequities of the Army's Plan B in attempting the rehabilitation of Okinawa after World War II are overplayed so broadly as to obscure the whimsey of the play, its deeper meaning and cultural perceptivity.

Captain Fisby does something very worth while, rather than hopelessly incompetent, when he permits the villagers in his command to build themselves a teahouse instead of the pentagon-shaped school prescribed in Colonel Purdy's Plan B. Fisby alone appreciates the value of the Okinawans' ancient traditions, so often misunderstood by Westerners.

Marlon Brando, while one of our most talented actors, has not done justice to the role of Sakini, Fisby's rascal of an interpreter. But in spite of the regrettable loss of David Wayne, and some misguidance in its direction, *Teahouse* remains a highly amusing comedy, that makes some shrewd observations about the interaction of American and Oriental ways of life.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

(1) *The Teahouse of the August Moon*, a novel by VERN SNEIDER. New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons, $1.98 edition.

(2) *The Teahouse of the August Moon*, a play by JOHN PATRICK, adapted from the novel by Vern Sneider. New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons, $3.00. The play is also found in *The Best Plays of 1953-1954*, edited by Louis Kronenberger; New York: Dodd, Mead and Co.

(3) *A Roomful of Roses* by EDITH SOMMER. New York: Dramatists Play Service (14 E. 38th St.), 90 cents.

(4) *The Rainmaker*, a romantic comedy by N. RICHARD NASH. New York: Samuel French Inc., 25 W. 45th St., actors' edition, $1.00; also available from Random House.

SUGGESTED PROJECTS

For composition exercise or class discussion, have students choose one of these films to see and compare with the novel or play on which it is based. Or several members of the class might prepare for presentation followed by discussion one or more scenes from any of the plays. They might discuss and give illustrations of these aspects: theme, content, character development, local color, humor, literary and entertainment values.

ELLEN CONROY KENNEDY,
Research Associate, Mass Media Awards Program
Thomas Alva Edison Foundation

Audio-Visual News

By EVERETT B. LARE

PAPER IN THE ROUND: Film; 10 mins.; Color ($100); Young America Films, Inc., 18 E. 41st St., New York 17, N.Y.

Summary: This film demonstrates and explains how paper of various colors and textures can be scored, cut, bent, curled, shaped, slotted, and tabbed to make many different objects, with cylinders and cones as the basic forms. Mr. Shelley, San Jose Junior College (California), does the demonstrations, assisted by two students. They show the technique of scoring by cutting into the construction paper, but not through it. Then, if you bend away from the scored line, a straight even fold will be possible. If you use curved lines, curved folds may be made. If you stretch one side of the paper, a cylindrical shape is produced. Then if you score a simple curve at one end of a cylinder, a cone is formed. If you make slots and tabs, pieces of paper may be joined together. All the foregoing techniques are shown in detail. The film now turns to many completed figures and goes rapidly from one to another, showing the different types that may be constructed.

Criticism: This attractive film has been rated excellent by the art department at Ossining Junior-Senior High School. The strength of the film is clearly in the pictures, but the well-connected commentary is an important factor in the successful presentation. It would probably be used to introduce a unit or to stimulate interest. The section of the film showing the finished products is weak because no explanation is offered as to how the complicated figures are made or assembled. However, this lack might lead an interested student to find out from his teacher how they might be constructed. It seems to me that the film might have been made longer to include these facts without going beyond the attention span of the audience. The color is an important factor in the attractiveness of the film. (Jr.–Sr. H.S.)

THE HUMAN BODY: CIRCULATORY SYSTEM: Film; 12 mins.; Color ($125), Black and white ($68.75); Coronet Instructional Films, Coronet Bldg., Chicago 1, Ill.

Summary: One of the earliest conceptions of the circulatory system was drawn by Vesalius. Harvey proved that blood is circulated in the body through arteries and veins. As the blood circulates, carbon dioxide is removed and oxygen absorbed in the lungs. The kidneys remove other wastes. The path of the blood flow is shown. A magnified drawing shows that an artery branches into arterioles, which branch into capillaries. From the capillaries the blood passes through veinules and veins on its way back to the heart. The construction of the heart is shown, consisting of two auricles and two ventricles. The pumping action is diagramed and the course of the blood from the heart to the lungs and from the heart to all parts of the body is made clear.

Criticism: The film sent for previewing was in black and white. I believe that it would have been much better in color because the movement of blood and wastes and oxygen is not clear to the untrained eye. The strength of the film is in both the pictures and the commentary. The number and difficulty of the concepts presented are suitable for grades 9–12. The pictures and words are well connected. The film could be used to introduce a unit of study or to stimulate interest or discussion on this unit. It is probably most suited for biology or health classes. Our preview committee rated the film as good. (Sr. H.S.)

HEART AND CIRCULATION: Filmstrip; Black and white, ($3.00); Encyclopaedia Britannica Films, Wilmette, Ill.

Summary: This filmstrip uses selected scenes from the film with the same title distributed by Encyclopaedia Britannica. It is reviewed at this time because of the new film, "The Human Body: Circulatory System," distributed by Coronet Films, which has just been discussed. The filmstrip is divided into two parts—the heart and the circulatory system. The action of the heart is pictured very clearly by drawings. A review of the steps in the passage of the blood through the heart is at the end of Part 1. The circulatory system is portrayed in Part 2. Diagrams show the passage of oxygen, food, carbon dioxide, and wastes through the cell walls. At the end of the filmstrip is a review carried out by pictures and questions. Suggested activities close the filmstrip.

Criticism: This is an appealing filmstrip. It could very well be used immediately after "Circulatory System" as a review and a detailed study. It would have continued interest appeal

since the pictures are different from those shown in "Circulatory System." When used with the film, "Heart and Circulation," one sometimes gets the comment, "Oh, we just saw those pictures in the film." The pictures showing the action of the heart are very well done. In fact, by flipping the frames rapidly, one can almost make the pictures move as in the original film. The open ending, leading to activities, after the review, is very effective. (Sr. H.S.)

Nature Study—Life Science Series

The series of films described below all have the common characteristic of vivid color combined with detailed close-ups of the animals described. It is a most attractive series, and the continuity and development in each film seem to be logical and smooth. Visually speaking, they would all be rated excellent. However, several previewers felt that although the photography was superb, the strength of the material was in the commentary. In other words, the pictures illustrate the commentary. These films would prove useful in any life-science classes in grades 6–9. They might be used to stimulate interest, to assist in presenting a unit, or to introduce a unit of study. A very complete study guide, including questions and vocabulary level, accompanies each film.

Source: Film Associates of California, 10521 Santa Monica Blvd., Los Angeles, Calif.; 10 mins. each; Black and white ($50), Color ($100).

FISH ARE INTERESTING: This film considers the two largest groups of fish, the sharklike fishes and the bony fishes. The skeletons of the sharklike fishes are made of cartilage and gristle. The skeletons of the bony fishes are made primarily of bone. The common characteristics of fish are considered one at a time. As each characteristic is mentioned, a picture of a different fish, showing that characteristic, flashes on the screen. The film closes with a summary of the material presented. (Jr. H.S.)

THE PHASE FILMS

are mature single-purpose films presenting the most significant microbiological phenomena disclosed in living organisms by the Nobel winning Phase-Contrast method.
Photography of living organisms
NOT ANIMATION

Write for descriptive folders

ARTHUR T. BRICE

Phase Films Ross, California

REPTILES ARE INTERESTING: This film considers the five groups of reptiles: the crocodilians, the turtles, the lizards, the snakes, and the group represented by the tuatara. The common characteristics of reptiles are that they have backbones, breathe with lungs, are cold blooded, and are covered with scales or plates. Very good close-ups of the animals and their habitats are shown. (Jr. H.S.)

FOSSILS ARE INTERESTING: This film may be divided into three parts: (1) How fossils are formed. (2) How fossils may be found. (3) Fossils found. The formation of fossils is shown by animation. A shell is shown underneath the water. It is covered by falling plants and animals as well as by grains of sand. Later as the water recedes, the fossil will be found buried in the sediment. Three children hunt for fossils where a road has been cut through a hill. They find the imprint of a plant, the imprint of a fish, mineralized wood, and shells. As each fossil is found, it is wrapped carefully and a note made describing it. This film closes with a summary. (Jr. H.S.)

SEA-SHELL ANIMALS: There are two major groups of shelled animals: those with one shell and those with two shells. Many illustrations are given of each type of shell, from the lowly clam to the octopus. It is suggested that the pupils might like to collect sea shells and arrange them in a collection after studying their characteristics. A summary of the types of sea shells concludes the film. (Jr. H.S.)

ANIMAL HABITATS: Living things are found in many different kinds of places and each is fitted for the habitat in which it lives. The film illustrates the specific adaptation of animals to the varying conditions of life demanded by desert, deciduous forest, prairie, evergreen forest, Arctic tundra and mountain timber-line areas. A snake is shown sidewinding across the sandy desert soil. This is a peculiar characteristic of rattlesnakes that live on the desert. In the forest live the white-tailed deer and the beaver. Both feed upon the plants that live in the deciduous forest. On the prairie live the grass-eating prairie dog and prong-horned antelope. In the evergreen forest live the chipmunk, the martin, and the black bear dependent upon the plants and animals of the forest. The big-horned sheep is an illustration of an animal that is fitted to live above the timber line. A summary closes the film. (Jr. H.S.)

YOUR MATHEMATICS PROGRAM CAN HAVE CONTINUITY FOR GRADES SEVEN THROUGH TWELVE

The **FUNCTIONAL MATHEMATICS** Series, Grades 7-12 by GAGER, ECHOLS, JOHNSON, MADDEN, MAHOOD, CARLTON, LYLE, BOWMAN, SHUSTER, AND KOKOMOOR.

"This series of books is exceptionally well done. It is by far the best attempt at unifying the mathematics of secondary schools that I have ever seen."

Daniel W. Snader, College of Education
University of Illinois

CHARLES SCRIBNER'S SONS, 597 Fifth Avenue, New York 17, N.Y.

Bloomington, Indiana Atlanta Dallas San Francisco

Summer School on Countrified Campuses
located 15 minutes from New York City

FAIRLEIGH DICKINSON UNIVERSITY

Rutherford and Teaneck, New Jersey

A full program of courses will be offered by—

• College of Arts and Sciences, including elementary education • School of Business Administration • School of Engineering and Science • Graduate School

In addition to—

• Workshop in creative writing • Seminar in science and mathematics for high school teachers • Reading clinic

Two six week sessions (day and evening classes): June 10 to July 19
July 22 to August 30

Registration: June 3, 4 and 7.

For complete information write:

DIRECTOR, SUMMER SESSION
Fairleigh Dickinson University
Rutherford, New Jersey

FAIRLEIGH DICKINSON UNIVERSITY

announces

A Summer Refresher Course for High School Teachers of Science and Mathematics

- A seminar on current developments in the science and mathematics areas
- Representatives of industry will participate in the sessions
- Open to a limited number of high school teachers, tuition free, and with maximum cash subsidies of $200 each
- Scheduled for July 8, 1957 to August 16, 1957
- Address applications and inquiries to:

DR. CLAIR BLACK
Fairleigh Dickinson University
Rutherford, New Jersey

and

A Creative Writing Workshop

- Designed to develop individual writing skills
- Authors, literary agents, and representatives of publishing houses will participate in the sessions
- Scheduled for July 7, 1957 to July 20, 1957
- Address inquiries to:

DR. J. STEPHEN BLOORE, DIRECTOR
Writers Workshop
Fairleigh Dickinson University
Teaneck, New Jersey

- • • Both Seminar and Workshop to be held on the Teaneck Campus located 15 minutes from New York City
- • • Dormitory facilities available